TEACHER TRAINING IN THE U.S.S.R. AND EASTERN EUROPE IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD

(1945 - 1966)

Nigel Grant

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

> We must keep clearly in mind that curriculum and syllabuses provide only a starting-point (in the future expansion of the educational system). How it will work out depends wholly and utterly on the teacher - his cultural and scientific outlook, his specialist and pedagogic training his pedagogic skill and devotion to the task of the communist upbringing of the rising generation. "As is the teacher, so is the school". This truth keeps its significance in our time too.

This comparatively recent statement by a commission of the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the RSFSR underlines one factor in the entire process of educational development in the USSR and Eastern Europe since the end of World War II. Whatever plans were determined upon, their chances of success have depended largely (not, of course, "wholly and utterly") on the teachers. Needless to say, there have been other factors too (not least among them being financial) but it is obvious enough that one of the major needs was, and remains, the continuous supply of a body of adequately trained teachers - and, it might have been added, a sufficiently large body - to help implement these plans. The attempts to realise these aims are the major concern of the present study.

But although the size and composition of the teaching force may modify educational developments profoundly, and affect their chances of success, they do not determine the line that such

developments will take in the first place. Decesions are made on what kind of education is held to be most desirable, and efforts are then made to meet these requirements through the training system. The needs of the schools determine the needs for teacher training, not the other way round. It will, therefore, be necessary to outline the present systems of the USSR and Eastern Europe, and major developments since the war, in order to set the systems of teacher training in proper context.

1. The USSR

At the end of World War II, the Soviet educational system comprised three types of general educational school: the primary school provided a four-year course from the age of 7 to 11; the incomplete secondary school a seven-year course from 7 to 14; and the complete secondary school a ten-year course from 7 to 17. These were not alternative courses; pupils went on from class IV of the four-year school to class V of the seven-year school, and so on. In 1945, however, the seventh class was as far as most children went; ten-year schooling was, as yet, within the reach of only a small minority,[2] and even seven-year schooling, though officially obligatory, was not uniformly enforced. It was, however, a major aim of government policy to make ten-year schooling universal by 1960; it was not until the passing of the measures of 1958 (commonly known as the "Khrushchov Reforms") that this policy was changed, and then only temporarily.

The structure, content and organisation of the schools at this time have been dealt with extensively elsewhere.[3] It is relevant to note, however, that the Soviet interpretation of the comprehensive principle was bound to have important implications for teacher supply later. In the first place, the teaching of a uniform curriculum to the entire age-group up to 14 (with minor variations from place to place) meant that teachers of any subject taught at this stage would be required in greater numbers than under a selective system (where scarcer specialists could be concentrated in the higher streams.) Secondly,

expansions of the stage beyond class VII would make even heavier demands. Stalin's policy of reimposing fees served to hold down numbers at this level and thus, apart from anything else, conserve the supply of highly qualified teachers; but the subsequent abandonment of this restrictive policy, with the prospects of expansion of numbers in classes VIII - X, meant that the demands on the most highly qualified teachers, and on the institutions training them, could not help but grow. Comprehensive schooling, in principle at least, has been a constant commitment, and was clung to in theory even when in abeyance in practice; but it was bound, in its Soviet version, to be expensive in terms of teachers. It seems reasonable to suppose that the authorities have usually been aware of this.

Technical and vocational schools lie outside the compass of this enquiry, but cannot be totally ignored. The shifts and reinterpretations of the polytechnical principle have been extensively discussed in the West;[4] less attention, however, has been paid to the converse principle, that of the "humanisation of Technology". Even in 1945 (and to a greater extent since) this has meant the inclusion of a substantial element of general studies in technical and vocational schools. Consequently, any large-scale expansion, absolute or relative, in schools of this type would not greatly remove pressures on the training system for teachers of general educational subjects. Except in the narrowest of vocational courses, they would still be needed in large numbers.

The USSR emerged from the Second World War with heavily depleted resources. Fighting had gone on for years on Soviet soil - often the richest parts of it - as the fronts came and went over the whole area from Leningrad, Moscow, the Volga and the Caucasus westwards. Loss of life has been variously estimated, but one observer[5] suggests over 30 millions, military and civil, plus the loss of some 10 millions from the birth-rate. In the wholesale destruction of property, some 82,000 schools were ruined, a loss of over 15 million school places.[6] All this took place in the most advanced areas of the USSR; the Far East, the Far North and Central Asia, though spared the worst effects of warfare, were more backward, educationally as in much else, than the European area of the Soviet Union.

The tasks for the immediate post-war period were obvious enough. First of all, there was the task of reconstruction in all branches of the national economy; this required more specialists and skilled personnel of all types, which in turn meant further strains on the shattered school system. A broader commitment to mass education precluded complete concentration on particular sectors of the system, however; retrenchment there had to be, but reconstruction of the educational system as a whole was an obvious priority. But reconstruction could not be enough; any plans for the future development of the country had to look well ahead, which emphasised that expansion of the educational system was a long-term social, political and economic imperative.

To accomplish this, schools were obviously needed, and building materials were in short supply. But this was not the principal difficulty; it is possible to have good teaching in sub-standard buildings, and those that exist can be used more intensively by means of a shift system. This was in fact done, and remains in force in a few schools even now.[7] But teachers are a different matter, and there were neither enough of them (except for a relatively brief period when the lower enrolments arising from the lower birth-rate took off the strain), nor were many of them well enough trained. Making good deficiencies in supply by intensive use (i.e. overtime) has obvious limitations. Nor would plugging the gaps be enough. The prospects for post-war educational expansion meant, necessarily, an open ended commitment to a large-scale expansion and improvement of teacher training and supply.

2. EASTERN EUROPE

"Eastern Europe" is used here in the political rather than the geographical sense. This involves some anomalies (such as the exclusion of neutralist Finland and "Atlantic" Greece and Turkey, or the inclusion of Czechoslovakia), but it has the advantage of comparative calm; it is difficult to discuss "peoples' democracies" or "Soviet satellites", according to taste, with any degree of objectivity. Including all European countries with communist governments does not, however, entirely solve the problem. For a long time after Tito's break with the Cominform in 1948, it was customary to leave our Yugoslavia as a deviant from the standard communist pattern, as indeed she was. But the cautious rapprochement between Yugoslavia and the USSR, and the cracking of the façade of unity since 1956 - demonstrated most forcibly by Albania's defection to the Peking camp and Rumania's studiously independent line on practically everything - have made such clear-cut distinctions less useful. For the purposes of the present study, all the communist-ruled countries of Europe will be considered to some extent, with the exception of Albania, which is relatively insignificant and for which full data are hard to come by. It will not be possible to give equal weight to all the rest. Yugoslavia and Rumania, therefore, are singled out as the most deviant members of the group,[8] and information from the others, especially Poland, Czechoslovakia and Hungary, will be considered to a minor degree.

Complex though the area is, there are good reasons for attempting to treat it as a whole. Geographically, it is relatively compact, if varied; historically, these countries share a great many experiences, mostly traumatic. Politically, their régimes all subscribe to some form of Marxist-Leninist doctrine and this, however strongly it may be tinged with nationalism, however various the interpretations may be put on it in practice, marks them off from the other countries of Europe. In the specific historical conditions of the post-war period, this has meant a great deal of dependence on the USSR at some point, which, even if it has now receded in some cases, is an experience common and fundamental in the pattern of events since 1945.

Educationally, too, they have much in common. There were many similarities in the pre-war systems, based largely on German and French models. A frequently high standard of instruction at secondary and higher levels was matched, in most cases, by problems of backwardness in rural education, high levels of illiteracy, neglect of technical education, and a high drop-out rate at or after elementary schooling, with an ever-narrowing corridor to the higher reaches of the educational systems. Most had to rebuild many of their schools from the ruins of war, all of them were faced with problems of expansion and re-orientation under the new régimes, and all of them, if only for a time, relied heavily on Soviet models as they reconstructed their systems according to new social and political requirements.[9]

Many though the problems are in making a survey of this kind, there are other strong reasons for attempting it. Compared with the USSR, the individual countries, with populations ranging from Poland's 30 millions to Albania's two millions, may not seem particularly significant; but together they total some 118 millions, over half the population of the Soviet Union. Just as in political matters the days are gone when "communist" and "Soviet" were largely interchangeable, so in education the East European countries can claim to be exemplars of communist schooling in their own right, not merely reflections in miniature of recent importations. In teacher training, as we shall see, there are some important differences, and in some respects the smaller countries have advanced in this field further than their powerful neighbour. Where once there was one model of communist education, there are now several; the basic resemblances are strong, but the differences are marked and are becoming more so.

Pre-War Education in Eastern Europe

Whatever kind of régime had been established in the East European countries after World War II, the needs for educational reform of some kind would have been pressing. Most countries were educationally backward, though to varying degrees. Predictably, the "Southern Tier" was rather worse off. Before the war, 46 per cent of Yugoslavia were reckoned illiterate (by the rather generous device of counting as literate anyone who could sign his name);[10] the figure

for illiteracy stood at 31 per cent in Bulgaria,[11] 25 per cent in Rumania[12] and, it is said, over 80 per cent in Albania[13]. The position was rather better in the north, with the significant exception of Poland's 25 per cent illiteracy; even so, 8.8 per cent were illiterate in Hungary[15], and even Czechoslovakia had a rate of over 4 per cent[16].

This state of affairs, due in large measure to economic backwardness, especially in the countryside, was exacerbated by the structure of the existing systems themselves. At its best, the standard of teaching was high, and based on long traditions of scholarship. The Universities of Kraków and Prague could look back on centuries[17] of academic excellence, nor was first-class higher education restricted to the "respectably ancient" foundations. At secondary level, the justly famous academic standards of the German Gymnasien were paralleled in the lycées of Poland and Rumania and the gymnasia of Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Yugoslavia and Bulgaria. Some of these schools boasted ancient lineage as well as high attainment; even now, Bulgarians and Rumanians are inclined to make almost as much of the Gabrovo High School and the Bălcescu lycée as do Poles and Czechs of the Jagiellonian and Charles Universities.

A few examples will serve to illustrate both the excellence and defects of the pre-war systems.

The Rumanian elementary school admitted children at the age of seven, and offered two types of course: four years for those going on to secondary schools, and seven years (age 7 - 14) for the

rest, a complete self-contained course designed to cover the entire period of compulsory schooling. So much in theory; in practice, the seven-year "terminal" course seems to have existed mainly on paper. Less than 6 per cent continued in elementary school beyond the fourth year,[18] which suggests a rather ineffective enforcement of compulsory schooling to the age of 14. The choice facing the eleven-year-old was in effect much more stark than the official position made out - either he went on to secondary school, or he left. The great majority left, especially in the countryside.[19]

For those who did go on, there was a variety of secondary schools. There were some vocational schools, though they occupied a lowly place in the system. There were pedagogic or "normal" schools with a seven-year course for the training of primary school teachers. There were theological schools (6-8 years), and there were the lycées, with seven-year courses. Lycées were of three types: academic, commercial and military, the curriculum for all three being much the same for the first three years, with some differentiation thereafter. At the end of the course, students could take the final examination (bacalaureat) and go on to higher education or jobs in industry or government. For those hoping to go on to university, the narrow path of the lycée was the obvious one to follow; entering some other kind of secondary school usually meant a rather firmer vocational commitment.

In Yugoslavia,[20] schooling was compulsory (at least nominally) for four years, and was provided in the "national" school (narodna škola). This could be followed by the "higher national school" (viša narodna škola), a four-year terminal elementary course, or by secondary school. There were three main types of secondary school; (1) the general secondary school (gimnazija), with an eight-year course, sometimes divided into two four-year stages; (2) the "civic" school (gradjanska škola), designated by the 1931 law as an "incomplete secondary school" - that is, a school which provided instruction to a level approximating to the first stage of the gimnazija; (3) technical and vocational schools of various types, a relatively undeveloped sector. Entry to secondary education was, once again, severely restricted, and even four-year elementary education was not effectively enforced, as the illiteracy figures witness. (Nor does the national average of 46 per cent tell the whole story; Slovenia and Croatia had much better records than this, but it was over 70 per cent in Macedonia, 72 per cent in Bosnia and Herzegovina.)[21]

Rather more effective, and also more complex, was the pre-war system in Czechoslovakia.[22] The stages of the system were: (1) the elementary school, from 6 to 11 years of age; (2) the "civic school" (měšťanská škola), an advanced primary or lower secondary school, from 11 to 15; (3) the secondary schools (střední školy). These stages were not usually taken in sequence, however. The first parting of the ways came at the end of the elementary school. The eleven-year-olds who qualified for admission (and could pay the fees of get a

scholarship) could go directly to a secondary school. There were no less than five types: (1) the gymnasium, with the main emphasis on Latin and Greek, very like the classical Gymnasium in Germany; (2) reálné gymnasium ("modern" gymnasium), with Latin, but substituting French or English for Greek; (3) the reformed reálné gymnasium - much the same, but with more stress on modern languages and less on Latin; (4) the reálká ("modern school"), which concentrated on mathematics, natural sciences and modern languages, to the exclusion of the classics; and (5) the "higher modern gymnasium" (Vyšší reálné gymnasium) which offered classical, scientific or modern language options halfway through the course. All of them provided the same basic instruction in other subjects - Czech or Slovak, history and the like. The courses lasted for eight years (seven in the reálká). The first four years were virtually the same in all secondary schools, differentiation taking place from the fifth year. Passing the final examination (maturita) qualified students for entry to higher educational establishments. In general or humane studies, this was the normal route to university of college.

Pupils who did not go to secondary school at 11 entered the civic school, where the four-year course was less exacting than secondary, but more advanced than primary - it included geometry, physics and a foreign language, for instance, and subjects with a vocational bent like book-keeping and manual skills. This could be regarded as a "terminal" course; indeed, it went one year beyond the age of compulsory schooling (14). It could also be regarded as

preparatory, for pupils completing it successfully could apply to professionally-oriented secondary schools. These were vocational-technical schools (engineering, etc.), agricultural and forestry schools, and commercial academies. The length of course was four years. On completion, the students could take up employment or enter the appropriate higher institutions - technical, agricultural or commercial colleges.

The influence of German models is clear throughout, especially at the academic secondary level. Enforcement of attendance was much more effective than in Rumania or Yugoslavia, and the opportunities less limited, by virtue of a viable "second road" to higher studies, the equivalent of the German zweiter Bildungsweg. A glance at the comparative illiteracy figures is one index of the greater efficiency of the Czechoslovak system. But it did have its black spots. As the name suggests, the Civic Schools were essentially urban; many districts lacked them altogether, and it was in the countryside that the system fell furthest short of its aims. Although the 1922 law had decreed compulsory schooling from 6 to 14, this was not always achieved in practice. There was a good deal of "leakage" before 14, and in predominantly rural Slovakia only 38 per cent went on to any kind of post-primary education, whether secondary or civic; the rest left with only five years of elementary schooling.[23] Czechoslovakia was more fortunate than most in being able to provide alternatives for the majority who could not proceed to secondary school, but even so there were shortcomings, sometimes glaring.

The pre-war system in Poland, which perhaps more than any other exhibited the contrast between academic excellence at the top and widespread backwardness, especially in the countryside, was also complex in structure. Under the 1932 Education Law, elementary education was compulsory from 7 to 14; it has been reckoned, however, that about one million school-age children did not attend at all,[24] and this figure may have been higher. The elementary or "common" schools were of three types: Grade III covered the full seven-year course in seven years, but Grades II and I, though they took the same length of time, covered only part of it. Most of the Grade III schools were in the towns; in the countryside, 73 per cent of the schools were Grade I in 1937-38.[25] They were also usually small and scattered; an elementary school had to provide for about four times its present area before the war, and over 50 per cent of such schools were one-teacher establishments. (The 1965 figure was 21 per cent.)[26] In principle, pupils from any kind of common school could take the entrance examination for the secondary schools, at the end of class VI from a grade III school, or at the end of the entire course from Grade I; but it must be obvious from the foregoing that Grade II and I pupils had the slimmest of chances in practice.

The general secondary school (ogólnokształcąca szkoła) offered a six-year course from the end of the sixth form of the elementary school. It fell into two stages: the gymnasium (gimnazjum) provided a four-year course; at the end of this, pupils could take the

entrance examination for the lyceum (liceum). There were four types of lyceum - classical, humanistic, mathematics- physics, and natural sciences.

Vocational secondary schools, though not greatly developed in the pre-war system, came in a wide variety of types. There were "lower-grade schools" (szkoly stopnia niższego), providing practical trade or agricultural courses for entrants from class VII to Grade I schools or the appropriate point in Grades II and I. There were also vocational schools corresponding to the two stages of general school (gimnazja zawodowe and licea zawodowe). In addition, there were various one-year vocational courses for students who had completed general schooling, trade-schools for master-craftsmen and foremen, secondary schools for elementary school teachers, etc. Entry to higher education was from schools of the lyceum type, whether vocational or general.

This system, for all its obvious deficiencies - disparity at primary level, over-examination and over-selectivity, fragmentation, and a plethora of blind alleys, was a considerable improvement on the one in existence before 1932.[27] It did not come to an end with the Nazi occupation: though the schools were closed completely in the annexed areas and partly in the "Government-General",[28] they went underground, and continued to function throughout the war. The old system therefore provided some basis for the construction of the new one.

The general pattern, then, was one of elementary schooling for a period of from four to seven years, unevenly enforced in most countries; from this, a minority went on to selective academic secondary schooling, while the rest either left school, completed terminal elementary classes, or in some cases had the chance of going to a middle or lower secondary school, with at least the formal possibility of proceeding from there to some kind of further secondary course. Generally, for all the variety of vocational and second-string post-primary courses, the clear-cut division remained between those who went on to secondary schools (the strong side of the pre-war systems) and those who did not. Secondary schooling, in practice, and usually in theory as well, was the concern of a minority, selective, and specifically geared to preparation of students for higher education and entry to the professions.

The academic secondary schools were not only selective, but narrowly based socially. The traditional academic bias, the selection procedures, the charging of fees and the paucity of scholarships, all tended to turn such schools into predominantly urban middle-class institutions (a tendency noticeable enough in countries that go to considerable pains to select by "culture-free" and "objective" methods, and without the barriers of expense). This ensured that for all the excellence of such schools in academic attainment, the majority of the population had to make do with something far inferior. Quite apart from political considerations, no post-war governments could have regarded social wastage on this scale with equanimity.

When only 14 per cent of the pupils in general secondary schools came from working-class or peasant families, as in Poland, or when the proportion was as low as four per cent, as in Hungary, some broadening of secondary education was clearly called for.[29]

Although there were usually alternative post-primary courses of a vocational or general type, and although in some cases these did provide an alternative route to further study (as in Czechoslovakia), this sector of the system was usually underdeveloped. East Germany, like the rest of the country, had had the Berufsschulen - day-release trade schools compulsory for all school-leavers under 18 who were not otherwise following secondary education - since 1919; they were not, however, alternatives to the secondary schools either in standards or in prospects. In Poland there were no vocational schools for adults, and only 207,500 students in vocational schools of any kind, less than a fifth of the figure in the early 1960s.[30] In Yugoslavia there were 53 technical schools, with about 10,000 students (compared with 257 at the end of the 1950s with over 76,000 students.[31] In Czechoslovakia,[32] there were 75,500 students in technical schools, as against the present figure of a quarter of a million, and so on. This was to prove something of a problem, economically as well as educationally, in the post-war period. One Rumanian commentator has called this a system of "theoretical schools for the elite, middle-grade professional schools for the N.C.O.s, and vocational schools for the other ranks."[33] The attitudes underlying this, too, were to prove a problem, even up to the present.

We have already seen something of the unevenness of the provision and enforcement of elementary education. In Poland, the completion of seven years of elementary school did not ensure completion of the course, and over a million children did not go anyway.[34] In Hungary, less than half the age-group completed the six-year elementary course.[35] In Bulgaria, there were as late as 1944 two thousand villages with no schools at all, and 100,000 children with no schooling.[36] Czechoslovakia and East Germany were much better placed, Yugoslavia and Albania much worse. Apart from obvious drawbacks, this situation ensured that the secondary schools would rarely have a nation-wide network of primary schools to draw on, thus further narrowing the already restricted base of the best sectors of the educational systems.

To all this must be added the effects of the war itself. Some of the more backward countries, such as Rumania and Bulgaria, were spared the worst; so, to a lesser extent, was one of the more advanced, Czechoslovakia. East Germany, advanced though it was, ended the war in ruins, and Poland and Yugoslavia emerged with the double liability of backwardness compounded by war damage. Yugoslavia's civil and resistance war (apart from killing one in nine of the population) totally destroyed 14 per cent of the schools and severely damaged 36 per cent. Some areas were worse hit than others. In backward Bosnia, 39 per cent of the schools were destroyed, while a further 21 per cent were damaged severely, 27 per cent slightly; 13 per cent were fit for immediate use.[37] Over the country as a whole, perhaps 50

per cent of the schools could be used right away, always supposing that staff could be found for them - no easy matter, since some 10,000 of the already inadequate teaching force had been killed.[38] Poland, where the Nazis had closed the schools and shot teachers as an apparently deliberate act of policy (one estimate puts the figure at over 27,000)[39] was in even worse case.

Among the host of other difficulties, mention should be made of the problem of nationalities and nationalism, arising from demographic complexity, war, irredentism, and the unenviable experience of centuries of uneasy existence within or on the marches of four major empires.[40] The relevance to education was not, perhaps, immediately apparent after the war, when Marxist internationalism and Soviet tutelage concealed the national passions bubbling beneath the surface. But the process that began with Yugoslavia's expulsion from the fold, and which has gathered momentum in recent years, has had several effects on the development of education. Nationalism can be backward or forward-looking, inward or outward; either way, its growth has tended to emphasise national self-awareness in general and national traditions in education in particular.[41] At the same time, assertion of national identity vis-a-vis the USSR has often had the effect of giving added impetus to the growth of international contacts and influence, in education as in other things. This can be seen clearly in Rumania, for example, but it is also discernable in Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia. Further, since independence is to a great extent a matter of economics, this is yet another spur towards industrialisation.

and economic development, as Rumania has been demonstrating since the controversy in 1963 over the steel plant at Galati,[42] and this, in turn, makes inevitable demands on the educational system, especially in the technical sector. One way and another, Eastern Europe has not been able to escape from the legacy of population mixtures, rivalries and intidy frontiers, even in education - and such matters as "education for patrioism", or schools for national minorities, are only part of the story.

Post-War Tasks

The tasks facing the Eastern European countries, and the USSR, were large-scale and numerous. Obviously enough, there had to be reconstruction to make good the ravages of war in schools, equipment and skilled personnel. Further, there had to be expansion: expansion of elementary school facilities where these were deficient, and expansion at the upper levels - secondary, technical, further and higher - even if the primary facilities were adequate. There were various reasons for this, practical and ideological. In the case of the USSR, the commitment to mass education was of long standing (even if irregular in implementation). It had been based partly on the assumption that a society cannot be socially and politically mobilised unless it is literate, and on the awareness that the economic, industrial, and social transformation of a society requires trained people - not only engineers, scientists, technologists and other highly trained specialists (this is obvious enough) but a vastly increased body of

second-line technicians, skilled workers, and a sufficiently broad base in secondary education to make the specialist level viable. It would be unfair to dismiss the contribution of the Leninist ideals (themselves with deep roots in the Russian cultural tradition)[43] of a well-educated, cultured community; the consistent preferential treatment in finance given to general educational as against technical schools suggests that the Soviet authorities have usually regarded it as more than a pious slogan.[44] But the practical pressures were real enough; if the USSR was to recover and progress economically, educational expansion was not only desirable but necessary.

Similar considerations applied to most of the East European countries as well. For the economically backward or dependent, industrial development seemed the only way out; and to accomplish this, educational expansion was, once again, a practical necessity. More specifically, the balance of the secondary systems had to be shifted. The technical sector, as we have seen, had been long neglected, a situation which had to be altered if the necessary numbers of technicians and skilled workers were to be forthcoming. (This was more true of some countries than others, of course, but even in industrially advanced Czechoslovakia there was a need for some expansion and change of emphasis at this level.

For the countries other than the USSR, post-war developments involved a complete change in the educational systems, due both to the logic of the situation and to the ideological implications of the establishment of "popular front" and then communist régimes.

Whether the school systems inherited by the communist régimes were relatively advanced (as in Czechoslovakia) or backward (as in Yugoslavia), mere numerical expansion, important though that was, was not enough. As the Bulgarian Constitution of 1947 (Article 79) put it:

> Citizens have the right to education. Education is secular, and is imbued with the democratic and progressive spirit... Basic education is compulsory and free. The schools are state schools... The right to education is guaranteed by means of schools and other educational establishments, universities, the provision of hostels, scholarships (etc. etc.)[45]

Or again, it was stated in the preamble to the 1948 Rumanian "Law for the Reform of the Educational System" that the main objectives were:

> To eliminate illiteracy; to broaden and democratise the basic educational system so as to include all children of school age, as well as adult illiterates; to educate the youth in the spirit of popular democracy, and to instill in them the spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism.[46]

Constitutions and legal preambles ae not, of course, necessarily effective guarantees in practice, and they may rely more on rhetoric than precise formulation. But they do give some idea of declared objectives at least. Politically, popular education became a fundamental commitment. Further, the former selective patterns no longer fitted the ideological needs (quite apart from the social and educational wastefulness inherent in them). They were considered too heavily biased towards the urban middle classes, too traditionalist,

and too far out of tune with the Soviet "working model" as well. Whether on practical or political grounds, the systems had to be broadened, and this meant some kind of comprehensive reorganisation.

There could, however, be no clean sweep of the old and building up of the new from first principles (or by direct borrowing from the Soviet Union). The brute facts of life got in the way: most of the countries were short of teachers and schools, but they had to make use of the ones they had. The post-war rash of legislation was not, therefore, meant to construct new educational systems from the ground up; it was rather a series of attempts to modify the existing systems. The various constitutional statements give some idea of the general principles involved - universal and free basic education, an open secondary system, the removal of class barriers, and close co-ordination with the needs of the new societies by stressing political content on the one hand and the scientific and technical side on the other. Not surprisingly, the Soviet Union (apart from anything else, it was the only established communist system in existence) provided the working model, at least in essentials: comprehensive, unstreamed general schooling from six or seven up to mid-adolescence in a basic school covering the entire period of compulsory education, with some differentiation thereafter in secondary schools with general, professional or trade bias. The degree of conformity to the Soviet model depended on a number of factors: the strength and adaptability of the existing traditions, or the availability of schools and staff. But the broad outlines of the process were similar.

Bulgaria was early in the field with the Education Law of September 1944 which "comprehensivised" the basic schools, set up special schools, and founded a network of external schools, evening and correspondence classes, etc.[47] In Poland,[48] the Minister of Education called a conference on public education at Łódź in 1945, and brought away recommendations that education should be henceforth free, comprehensive and unified, and open at all levels. More specifically, the conference suggested a basic comprehensive eight-year school, to be followed by three-year secondary and trade courses - not unlike the existing Soviet system of the time, with some additions. It was also suggested that all pupils not pursuing full-time secondary schooling should be required to attend a part-time trade school till the age of 18 - an idea presumably borrowed from the German Berufsschulen. Not surprisingly, the actual "Decree on the Organisation of the School System" (November 1949) was more modest. It instituted a compulsory 7-year basic school. The existing secondary schools (the 4-year gimnazjum topped by the more specialised 2-year liceum) were replaced by a single 4-year liceum, much more broadly-based than before, and to which entry was postponed until completion of the basic school. This step reduced the total length of general schooling from 12 to 13 to 11 years, though it has since been raised again to 12. At the same time, the technical network was greatly expanded, as were part-time schools of all kinds. To remove one of the worst blots, an intensive anti-illiteracy campaign was mounted in April 1949.

In Hungary,[49] the dual nature of the elementary school was abolished in 1945, and a single basic 8-year school (6-14) was set up instead. Three main types of secondary school followed on from this, with four-year courses and varying degrees of bias towards academic or professional instruction. Early selection for the academic secondary school (gimnazjum) was done away with - all pupils had to complete the basic course first. Here, too, there was considerable expansion of technical and vocational courses, evening and correspondence classes, adult education, etc.

The Czechoslovak School Law of 1948 was intended "to make culture, training and education more democratic".[50] Apart from bring all schools under state control, this meant in practice a restructuring of the system. As in pre-war days, this was a three-tier system, but with the difference that each stage had to be taken in order, early selection for the secondary schools being stopped. The system thus comprised the following levels: (1) the basic or "national" school (národní škola), age 6-11; (2) the middle school (11-15); and (3) four-year gymnasia and vocational secondary schools. The two lower stages were later fused into an eight-year (subsequently nine-year) comprehensive school, followed by different types of secondary school on the usual pattern.

In Yugoslavia similar steps were set in motion, though this took time; it was not until the 1950s that major legislation was worked out.[51] From the start, however, priority was given to expansion.

In 1945 compulsory education was increased to seven years (7-14), and in 1952 to eight years, though in both cases the changes had to be implemented gradually. The "General Law of Education" of 1958 recast the whole system, adopting the eight-year school as the basic unit, with the lower forms of the gimnazija, as well as the higher national or lower secondary school, being absorbed into it. The gimnazija, with other secondary and technical schools, was rearranged as a four-year course following on from the basic school. Once again, the practice of early selection for secondary schools was ended by the unification of the basic school. At the same time, secondary provision was expanded, with the usual shift of emphasis from general to technical courses. By 1960, over 80 per cent of the appropriate age-group were at basic school, 28 per cent in secondary school, and nearly 6 per cent in higher education. The Social Plan for 1961-65 envisaged about 90 per cent in basic school, 35 in secondary, and 10 per cent in higher education. This was achieved, but unevenly; although 95 per cent of 7-15 year olds now attend basic school, there is still considerable drop-out before the end of the course. In 1958, only 30 per cent of the age-group were enrolled in class VIII, in 1962-63 still only 46 per cent.[51a] The proportion is rising, but has not yet reached the full extent, so that while a majority of those completing class VII seem to go on to secondary school, there is still a problem of enforcement further down the system.

Rumania, as we have seen, began to recast the school system radically in 1948. As elsewhere, the actual provisions of the law were relatively modest. On the surface, it looked like a retrenchment compared with the requirements of the pre-war system; but since these requirements (such as compulsory pre-school education and seven years of obligatory elementary schooling) existed on paper rather than in reality, it was actually a small but real advance. The new system consisted of the following: (1) pre-school institutions (voluntary); (2) a basic comprehensive seven-year school, compulsory at first only from 7-11, voluntary from 11-14; (3) at secondary level, a three-year lycée and various types of vocational school. A forth year, however, was added to the lycée in 1956. In 1958-59, a start was made in extending compulsory education to seven years; no sooner was this complete (1961-62) than the seven-year school was extended to eight-years, the change becoming complete by 1964-65.[52] After the war, fee-paying was kept for a time in schools beyond the compulsory stage, but was progressively abolished; there is now no charge for education at any level, apart from the usual contribution towards maintenance costs in kindergartens and boarding schools. The provision of free textbooks has spread upwards from the fourth year. Unlike some of their neighbours, including the USSR, the Rumanian authorities regard this as a fundamentally important step in creating favourable conditions for the children of workers and peasants, though it had to be taken gradually for economic reasons. By 1965, free books were provided in secondary schools as well.

Out of this complex of post-war developments, it is possible to distinguish a number of general trends:

(1) The expansion, where necessary, of basic elementary schooling.

(2) The unification of the upper elementary school (whether previously organised as terminal classes or as a separate school) and the lower forms of selective secondary schools.

(3) Consolidation of these elements within a basic 7- or 8-year comprehensive school, embracing all pupils of the appropriate age-group; in some cases, there has been a blurring of the distinction between the lower (elementary) and upper (lower secondary) forms.

(4) Expansion of secondary schooling, with particular emphasis on trade schools and on those with combined general secondary and professional courses, like the Soviet "tekhnikum".

(5) Reorganisation of the upper forms of the old academic secondary schools into separate schools with three- or four-year courses, to follow on from the basic schools. Selection at this stage has generally been retained.

(6) Expansion of part-time, adult and further education courses to provide opportunities for late starters and to keep open the channels to higher education, whether general or vocational.

(7) Expansion of higher education, with particular reference to science, applied science and technology; here, too, there was a marked expansion (or setting up, where not already available) of part-time courses.

In short, the traditional systems were structurally altered from selective to mass systems, with the example of the USSR in mind, at least in general terms. The content of education, too, underwent radical change, though once again there were many national variants on the theme. The most significant developments were the shift in emphasis from the classics to the sciences, from pure sciences to technology. Technical and polytechnical education also found a place in the general schools, though they did not make their maximum impact until the second wave of school reforms in the early 1960s.[54] Such subjects as "civics" or "citizenship" were either reinterpreted along Marxist lines, or replaced by more direct political teaching, in such forms as the subject of "scientific socialism" in the Rumanian lycée, or "fundamentals of communism" in the Bulgarian secondary schools.[55] Religious education was generally removed from the curriculum, though it made a temporary reappearance in Poland and Czechoslovakia, and is still available on a voluntary basis in Hungary.

Close though the curriculum was brought to that of the Soviet schools, there remained some differences. The range of foreign languages was greater, for instance, and so remains.

Soviet schools normally teach only one, but in most East European countries it is usual to find pupils in secondary schools studying two or even three. Classical studies, though far less important than they were before the war, have not suffered the virtually total eclipse that they have in the USSR. In the Soviet Union, Latin is taken at university level, if anywhere (and seldom at all); but it is commonly taught in Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary and East Germany, while in Rumania (doubtless because Rumanian is a Romance language) it is compulsory in the lycée.[56] Again, the Soviet practice at that time of prescribing a uniform curriculum throughout general schooling was not fully adopted. Though the curricula became substantially uniform for the basic schools throughout any given country, choice of course at the secondary stage was widely retained. Bulgaria has a uniform course, with little choice of subjects, but elsewhere the gymnasia or lycées have kept separate courses. Rumania and Yugoslavia, for instance, have two "sides", humanities and sciences; so, now, has Czechoslovakia, though it used to have three;[57] Hungary has no less than 13 curricula for different subjects emphases.[58] There are differences, too, in the point at which specialisation starts; in Czechoslovakia it is at the beginning of the secondary course, in Rumania after one year, in Yugoslavia after two. This is not, it must be emphasised, anything like the degree of specialisation found in an English sixth form, or even in the upper classes of a Scottish secondary school. Common subjects make up the bulk of the course, concessions to the principle of specialisation being minor and within the framework

of a shared general education. (It is interesting to note that this is one field where the USSR, with the recent expansion of time for elective and optional courses, seems to be following the Eastern European countries, instead of the other way round.)[59]

Soviet, as distinct from communist, influence was felt in other ways. Soviet history and geography and Soviet institutions were given considerable prominence, while Russian became the compulsory first foreign language in the basic schools, the study of western languages being postponed until the secondary stage. Yugoslavia was the first to move away from this pattern, de-Sovietising the curriculum and making Russian only one of four possible languages that could be chosen half-way through the basic school. Rumania did the same in 1963.[60] In the other countries, Russian retains a dominant position, but even this, in view of the expansion of optional or experimental language classes at the basic school stage, is not what it was. But if differentiation is now on the increase, there is no doubting the considerable influence of Soviet practice on the development of education through most of the post-war period.

3. The USSR - Developments in the Post-War Period

The development of education in the immediate post-war period was largely a matter of reconstruction and expansion of the existing system. While the Eastern European systems were, in effect, changing direction gradually but radically, the Soviet system remained essentially that which had developed in the 1930s. The major tasks were, therefore, quantitative - the expansion of basic education, the further enforcement of compulsory schooling, the expansion (still on a limited scale) of complete secondary schooling and the existing system of professional and trade courses. Major reassessments did not come until after Stalin's death, with Khrushchov's call for polytechnisation of the curriculum at the 20th Congress of the Communist Party in 1956. Since this was the congress at which Khrushchov began the systematic demolition of the Stalin cult, the delegates doubtless had other things to think about, and not a great deal was done. Major changes, however, were not far away, and have been a constant feature of the Soviet educational scene ever since. The most important of these were the "Khrushchov Reforms" of 1958, the changes of 1964 (which substantially modified Khrushchov's) and, after a brief period of consolidation, the enactments of 1966, which laid the guidelines for further development up to the present and beyond.

1. The "Khrushchov Reforms" of 1958

The enactments of December 1958 are well-known, and have been extensively examined and analysed elsewhere.[61] But, gifted with hindsight, we can pick out some of the most important provisions. The "Law on strengthening the links of the school with life and further developing the system of public education in the USSR"[62] increased 7-year schooling to eight years, 10-year to 11. There was to be a much greater emphasis than hitherto on polytechnical education of all kinds, and practical and productive work in factories and on farms was to take up about a third of curricular time in classes IX-XI. More use was also made of part-time courses in secondary education.

The system set up by the 1958 legislation was thus based on the 8-year compulsory comprehensive school, known officially as the "incomplete secondary general educational labour polytechnical school" (nepolnaya srednyaya obshcheobrazovatel'naya trudovaya politekhnicheskaya shkola), or, more concisely, as the "eight-year school" (vos'miletnyaya shkola), covering the age-range 7-15. At the end of class VIII, pupils could either leave and go to work, or enter secondary schools with varying degrees of emphasis on general and polytechnical or vocational education. The main types of secondary school were:

(i) The "complete secondary general educational labour polytechnical school with production training" (polnaya srednyaya obshcheobrazovatel'naya trudovaya politekhnicheskaya shkola s proizvodstvennym obucheniem) - in effect, a three-year continuation of the eight-year

school. These schools were often organised in the same buildings as eight-year schools, forming continuous "eleven-year schools" (odinnadtsatiletnie shkoly). Approximately a third of the time was to be spent in production training, the eleventh year being (when not a legal fiction)[63] a device to provide the extra time needed. At the end of the course, pupils could take the leaving certificate (attestat zrelosti, or certificate of maturity) and apply for entry to higher education.

(2) Secondary specialised schools (srednie spetsial'nye uchebnye zavedeniya) provided 3-4 year courses leading to the attestat and a qualification in some technical or semi-professional occupation. The curricular time was divided between general and vocational education in the ratio of approximately 1:2. Among the many types of school in this category, two principal kinds can be distinguished: tekhnikumy with courses in agriculture and industry, and uchilishcha for educational, medical, clerical and similar personnel. Courses of this kind were also available for those who had taken the full secondary course already; in their case the course was of two years' duration, devoted almost entirely to professional training. Significantly, perhaps, most of these schools came not under the Ministries of Education of the Union Republics, but under the USSR Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education.

(3) Vocational-Technical Schools (professional'no-tekhnicheskie uchilishcha) provided 1-3 year courses leading to trade qualifications, with about 20 per cent of the time devoted to general educational subjects.

(4) Part-time schools, such as "schools for working and rural youth" (shkoly rabochei i sel'skoi molodyozhi) provided complete secondary courses by evening shift or correspondence study, while pupils were employed in production. It was made abundantly clear, both in 1958 and later, that courses of this type or vocationally biassed courses, were to be regarded as preferable to full-time general schooling.[64]

"Bringing the school closer to life", then and later, received most of the attention. But the second part of the title was, and is, important. The "links with life" have had their ups and downs but "further development of the system of public education" has continued with rather more success, and the comparative figures indicate. (See Table II, 3.)[65]

Among the reasons for the change, these seem to have been the most important:

(1) Manpower. The hideous losses of life during the war, and the loss of about 10 million births, have already been noted. The resultant population "dent" at the adolescent level in the late 1950s. was probably a powerful argument in favour of keeping as many young people as possible involved in some kind of productive work.

(2) Cost. Apart from anything else, part-time courses are cheaper, costing about a quarter as much as full-time courses.[66] Too much should not be made of this, however; it has already been noted that consistently favourable budgetary treatment has been accorded to

general schools. Furthermore, the USSR had begun, in 1956, an extensive programme of boarding school provision, an extremely expensive undertaking. Quite apart from the capital costs, it has been reckoned that boarding school places cost about seven times as much to maintain as day school places, and that only a small part of this could be recovered in the form of parental contributions.[67]

(3) Variety. The tripartite system of general, secondary specialised and trade schools may have been an attempt to increase diversity of choice after 15. Not much was made of this at the time; but the marginal introduction of optional courses in the senior classes of the general school under the same law, and their considerable expansion since (at the same time as the shift of emphasis back to general schools in 1966) does suggest that considerations of this kind were taken into account.

(4) Social engineering certainly loomed large. From this point of view, the measures were an attempt to discourage the white-collar mentality. Khrushchev inveighed lengthily against the "barrier between mental and manual labour"[68], and against the byeloruchki (white-handed ones) who were afraid of manual work. "Manual labour," he observed, "has become something to frighten children with... This is fundamentally wrong, and runs counter to all our teachings and aspirations."[69] Hence the need to become familiar with the fundamental processes of work, to learn what work was like (and get used to it) in production practice; hence, too, the emphasis on part-time courses, with the students and pupils constantly in touch with the realities of working

life. Khrushchov summed up his attitude in one of the pithy sayings of which he was so fond - "uchenie i trud - vmeste idut" (Learning and labour go together.)

(5) There was a crying need for a better-trained as well as a bigger labour force. The greatly increased number of trade and technical courses might help to provide it.

Everything seemed set for the training of the "New Man", but it was not long before it became clear that something had gone wrong. For a time nothing much happened, apart from some simmering in the press. It was not until 1964 that any major changes were made; and when they came, they came suddenly.

ii. The 1964 Changes

In August 1964, the Central Committee of the CPSU and the Council of Ministers of the USSR adopted a resolution "On the change of the period of instruction in secondary general educational labour polytechnical schools with production training".[70] This brought in a number of changes, of which the most important were:

(1) The eleventh year was abolished, though the eight-year school was retained. Part-time schools were to continue with eleven-year courses "officially" for the time being, though they too were expected to cut down to ten years if possible.[71]

(2) The emphasis on polytechnical and production training was decreased. In particular, production practice was cut from a third of curricular time in the upper classes of the secondary school to a quarter, and there was much talk of the need to "rationalise" all aspects of polytechnical and labour training. Much of it, apparently, had been so badly organised as to seem "just so much wase of time",[71] as E.I. Afanasenko, Minister of Education of the RSFSR, put it. "There has been," it was said, "a lack of clarity in production training....Many programmes were needlessly overloaded with material not clearly required... This caused considerable discontent among pupils, parents, and teachers too."[72] At the same time, it was denied that this was a return to the pre-1958 system. "Education in and for work has become the sacred watchword of the Soviet school... This change in no way means a return to the old ten-year school, a repudiation of production training".[73] Or again, "The fundamental principles...remain unalterable - the secondary school was, is, and will be a general educational labour school with production training."[74] Rationalisation, not abolition, was called for.

(3) Expansion was to continue, still with strong emphasis on part-time courses. These, indeed, were still described as "the normal way for Soviet youth." In the RSFSR alone, 2.2 millions were in part-time courses, twice the 1959 figure.[75]

(4) Ministries were instructed to draw up new curricula and syllabuses; in the meantime, temporary ones were introduced, mainly by the device of cutting and patching the old. One constant theme in

press articles at the time was that "the shortening of the course must on no account bring about a lowering of the standard of the pupils' general education,"[76] and that it was all a matter of efficient use of time. According to Afanasenko,

> A careful analysis of all curricula has shown that the same material is repeated in different years... The revision of the curriculum will relieve the school programme. This relief, together with the reduction of hours spent on productive labour, will enable the school to fulfill the very same tasks in ten instead of eleven years.[77]

The changes were presented as an advance, not a retreat, a further indication that "the Soviet school and its teacher are surrounded by constant care."[78] "The resolution," said Uchitel'skaya gazeta (15 August 1964), "has been received with great satisfaction by teachers and all workers in public education. It will help the further improvement of the Soviet school, the basis of the spiritual culture of the people."[79]

At the same time, there were signs of disquiet. Even the official pronouncements and explanatory articles had a note of uneasiness about them, while Afanasenko felt it necessary to make himself available (as announced at the end of an interview in Sovietskaya Rossiya) to answer personally telephone calls from anxious readers.[80] It may be relevant, too, to mention that an earlier decree had raised teachers' salaries by an average of about 20 per cent; at any rate, a timely reminder of this was coupled with appeals to teachers to work harder to implement the new schemes.[81]

The chief reasons for these changes appear to have been:

(1) Cost. The eleventh year doubtless proved something of a strain on resources, especially at a time when the numbers going on to complete secondary education were rising all the time. According to one observer,[82] the eleventh year was often little more than a revision period for the tenth in any case. Cost, too, might help to explain the continued emphasis on part-time courses.

(2) Something clearly had to be done about production training. For senior pupils to acquire work-skills, a vocational qualification and more positive attitudes towards manual work by prolonged spells in factories and on farms was all very well in theory; all very well, too, in practice, where suitable conditions existed. But all too often they did not exist; pupils spent too much of their time learning pointless tasks, doing repetitive work, or just hanging about. Many factory managers perfectly prepared to show parties of pupils round on "polytechnical excursions", were much less enthusiastic about having large numbers of them under their feet two days a week. Both educationally and economically, the system was proving in many ways crude and ineffective.

(3) This does not explain the haste with which the new measures were introduced. They were announced in August, they were to begin to operate at the beginning of September, and the transition was to be complete within two years. By way of contrast, the 1958 changes were preceded by experiment, discussion and kite-flying from 1957; they were adopted in December 1958 for the school year beginning

September 1959; and in 1964 (possibly even later) there were still areas in the country where they had not been fully put into effect. Khrushchov was still in power at the time (he was dismissed in October), so that the changes can hardly be described as the wielding of a new broom by Brezhnev and Kosygin. Later, he was obliquely criticised for "hasty measures", and this may have been one of them. In the absence of anyth' more concrete than speculation, however, the puzzle remains.

iii. The Measures of 1965 and 1966

1965 saw a certain amount of consolidation and preparation for more, notably in the work of a special commission of the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the RSFSR in constructing new curricula and syllabuses.[83] These were to take the place of those thrown together in the previous year,[84] and are now being gradually introduced; the process should be complete by 1970. At the same time, there was a great deal of discussion in the press on almost every aspect of the educational system. Teacher training, school methods, content of curricula and the frequent failures of practice to live up to theory were among the topics most commonly aired, but the coverage was general. From the kindergartens to the universities, none escaped, while the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences came in for particularly rough handling for failure in leadership and co-ordination.[85]

Towards the end of 1966 the Central Committee of the CPSU and the Council of Ministers of the USSR adopted a resolution "On measures for the further improvement of the work of the secondary general education school", laying down the guidelines for educational development during the next five-year plan. It dealt with many points, detailed and general, but the central issue was the expansion of ten-year schooling. According to a commentary in Pravda:

> In the resolution it is pointed out that the most important task for Party and Soviet organisations in the field of public education is to complete substantially by 1970 the introduction in the country of universal secondary education[86]

More specifically, as the Minister of Education explains elsewhere, "by 1970, 75 per cent of those leaving the eight-year school will go into the senior classes. The rest will study in tekhnikumy, shift schools for working youth and other educational institutions."[87] Not only the proportions, but the relative preferences are clear. "Youngsters who have completed the eighth form must study further. There are three ways to do this: first, to finish the complete secondary school; second, to enter a tekhnikum and become a specialist with a secondary education; third, to enter a vocational-technical school and take a trade qualification, and then secondary education through evening or external school."[88]

The change from Khrushchov's preference of 1958 - or even those still assumed in 1964 - is striking. Full-time general secondary education is far to the fore, while part-time schooling,

trade courses and the like are now a second best. This, together with changes in polytechnical education, and especially in production training, have led some observers to conclude that the Soviet system is reverting to the pre-1958 order and forgetting the whole idea of "links with life" after all. This is an enormously complex topic which could be the subject of a full-length study on its own. But since it is relevant to the problems of teacher training, as is any major development of the content of education in the general schools, it merits at least a closer look at this stage.

Production practice of the old type in factories and farms, with a vocational bias, is no longer general in secondary schools, except where conditions favour its being done properly; and this, clearly, applies only in a minority of cases. According to the Minister, "About a third of all secondary schools have decided to continue with production training--- Let them work out their experience." For the most part, however, production practice of that kind is out. "Life has confirmed the profundity of the Leninist idea of a polytechnical but not vocational general educational school."[89] The "rationalisation" of 1964 has thus led to abolition in the majority of schools.

But polytechnical and labour training are to continue. "The school," says Prokofiev (the new Minister of Education), "must not build a fence round its activities" - hence the need for familiarity with the different kinds of production in the neighbourhood. "The school

must not rear byeloruchki" - hence the need for first-hand experience of work, though now usually within the school. The aim of polytechnical education, "deeper than before", is to give "a general understanding of production."[90] It is to take the form of handwork with the younger classes - work with wood, paper, plastic, etc., moving on to more advanced activities in school workshops and experimental plots in classes V-VIII, coupled with excursions, technical circles, and other forms of extra-curricular work. From classes VII-VIII, vocational orientation, rather than specific trade training, appears; its aim "is to give the youngsters experience of various jobs and their significance to the economy, and help towards the informed choice of future vocation."[91] Much is written of the need to improve the supply of instructors and the "material basis" (material'naya baza) - workshops, equipment, and the like.

N. ... however, pretends that there are not many problems. "For the Soviet school to be truly polytechnical, a great deal still needs to be done. Consequently, we must construct courses in the theoretical disciplines... Introducing pupils to the laws of nature, teachers of physics, biology and other subjects can show...how they relate to production."[92] Much has been written about this aspect too.[93] Significantly, the emphasis in vocational training is on courses for those who have completed the ten-year school.[94] General technical education during general schooling, in an age of rapid technical change, makes more sense than early training in specific trades - after all, many of these trades may not exist in 10 or 20 years' time. It may be

that much of the recent talk about the need to make polytechnical education more meaningful is little more than an ideological genuflection, but it would be unwise to assume this; it is reasonable to suppose that, for all the recurrent reinterpretations, polytechnical education in some form is still taken seriously in the Soviet school.

New curricula and syllabuses, based on those drawn up by the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences in 1965, were also brought into effect. Among other things, they cut down the number of teaching hours per week to 24 in classes I-IV and 30 in classes V-X, with a view to reducing the "overloading" of pupils, a matter hitherto for much complaint.[95] There has also been some shifting of material from the secondary (i.e. incomplete secondary" into the primary course where, according to at least one influential commentator, a "vacuum" exists in some subjects.[95] This has been seen by many as a change of balance between the primary and secondary courses in the eight-year school from a 4:4 to a 3:5 pattern.[96]

Another significant development is the extension of the principle of elective and optional courses. These made a marginal appearance (one hour a week in the senior forms) in the curricula introduced in 1958. Now, however, they start earlier and loom larger: from one hour a week in class VII they rise to four hours a week in IX and X, under ministerial regulations for the year 1967-1968.[97] These courses enable pupils to do more work in existing subjects, or to take extra courses. This kind of thing, of course,

has taken place for years in the extra-curricular circles in the schools and the Pioneer Palaces. This continues: the new development consists in the formalisation of such "curricular enrichment" within the school course itself. The ministerial regulations, incidentally, empower the schools' pedagogic councils to establish other courses according to their own circumstances, which opens up possibilities of further variety. Phrases such as "independent work" and "pupils' interests" are now familiar items in the currency of educational discussion. The room for specialisation is, of course, still tiny by English or even Scottish standards, and the broad general curriculum remains in force. It does seem, however, that the schools are moving towards greater variety, and giving greater scope for the pursuit of individual interests within the framework of the broad shared curriculum. This, not surprisingly, carries problems of its own in the field of teacher training, as we shall see later.

Earlier enactments to set up an all-Union Ministry of Education (while retaining the Republic ministries) and to transform the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the RSFSR into that of the USSR, are relevant here too. One reason was doubtless to ensure greater co-ordination and cut out some of the "diffusion of resources" complained about.[98] Another (though this is admittedly a guess) may have been to give the general school system more weight in the highest Party and governmental organs. The Ministry of Education of the RSFSR, it is true, acted in many wasy as a de facto central

ministry; but, assuming that the central organs (like most cabinets) are where the important knife-fighting over money and priorities goes on, it is unlikely that Afanasenko could carry as much weight as Yelyutin of the Ministry of Higher Education. Prokofiev, on the other hand, seems to be a much more influential figure.

Needless to say, there remain formidable problems in the way of the implementation of the present plans. Prominent among these are cost, the special problem of rural schools,[99] supplies and communications, and, linked with all these, the training and supply of teachers.[100] Relevant aspects of these problems will be examined more closely at a later stage.

4. The Present Educational Systems of the USSR and Eastern Europe - an Outline of Types of Schools and Courses.

Having outlined some of the outstanding problems facing the educational systems of the USSR and Eastern Europe after the war, and having followed the main lines of development up to the present time, it seems convenient to summarise the situation by outlining the various types of school and course for which teachers have to be trained. Nomenclature, however, is something of a problem, since even within this area the same or similar terms are differently used, and even within one system the usage is not always consistent. "Secondary", for instance, is used in the USSR sometimes to describe the entire general 10-year course, sometimes the top two classes, sometimes classes V-VIII or V-X; in the other system, it normally means schooling beyond the compulsory stage, but even here there are complications: Bulgaria exhibits ambiguities similar to the USSR, while East Germany uses the term "secondary school" (Oberschule) for the basic ten-year school, distinguishing the upper course by the term "prolonged secondary school" (erweiterte Oberschule). Rumania and Hungary use the term "general school" (scoala generale, általános iskola) for the basic school from the first year to mid-adolescence; in Yugoslavia and Poland, terms which can be translated as "elementary" or "primary school" (osnovna škola, szkoła podstawowa) in fact denote the basic school from 7-15, including its "secondary" element. For the sake of clarity, therefore, it seems reasonable to devise

a system of nomenclature that can be fitted at need to the various national terms, but which can yet be relatively unambiguous for describing the area as a whole. Bearing in mind that this has the drawbacks of a scheme imposed from without, one might suggest the following:

(1) Pre-School Education. There is little problem here; pre-school institutions are normally found at two levels, crèches for infants from under one year to about three years of age, and kindergartens for children from the age of three up to the beginning of compulsory schooling. In the Soviet Union, the two are often combined in single crèche-kindergartens (yaslie-sady). In all cases, enrolment is overwhelmingly greater at kindergarten than crèche level, and especially in the over-five age group.

(2) General Educational Schools. These may be unified, or divided into more or less clear-cut stages, sometimes in separate buildings. Three stages may be discerned:

I. Basic School, elementary stage. From the beginning of compulsory schooling (age 6 or 7), this stage last about four years. Typically, each class has one teacher for the whole range of general subjects.

II. Basic School, lower secondary stage. This lasts for four or five years, depending on the country, from the end of the elementary stage to the end of compulsory schooling (14/15/16). Typically, teaching is done by subject specialists, while a

class teacher, normally one of the subject specialists with additional responsibility, attends to the children's welfare, moral education, etc.

III. Upper secondary stage. This may last from 2 to 4 years, depending on the country, and normally extends from the end of the basic school to the taking of the final certificate at age 17/18/19. In most of the East European countries, this stage is self-contained, often in separate institutions, with some kind of selection for admission.

Parallel to the general schools at stage III are various kinds of vocational, technical, trade and professional schools. For convenience, these may be classified as follows:

III (b) Secondary Professional Schools, with 3-4 year courses leading to a secondary general certificate and a vocational qualification in some technical or professional field.

III (c) Trade or Apprentice Schools, with shorter courses (1-3 years) for the training of skilled workers. These do not really qualify as stage III from the point of view of general educational content, but since they offer an alternative course after stage II, they may be entered here.

(3) Further and Higher Educational Institutions. This category includes all types of course available for those who have successfully completed stage III. There are, of course, many differences, but the main divisions are between:

I. Professional Colleges (cf. German Fachschulen), with 2-3 year courses leading to a professional qualification below university standard. In certain cases, it is possible to go on from these to higher institutions without having to start at the beginning; this system is particularly well-developed in Yugoslavia.

II. Higher Institutions, with 4-6 year courses, offering qualifications of university standard (cf. German Hochschulen).

III. Post-Graduate Courses.

The diagram illustrates the general pattern. A few further points have to be noted, however:

(1) Stages I and II of the general educational school are usually taught together within a unified basic school. Increasingly, however, the demarcation line is becoming blurred; in the USSR, Hungary and Poland, for example, some secondary subjects make their appearance earlier, some later, thus making it ever more difficult to talk of primary and secondary stages with the unambiguity possible in more familiar systems. In Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia, this unification is being carried out as a matter of deliberate policy, some subjects being structured accordingly, as in the case of the Yugoslav schools' "study of nature and society", which splits up, stage by stage, until it finally separates into the more familiar disciplines of biology, chemistry, physics, geography, history and citizenship (see Table I_2 [101]). In Rumania, experiments have been conducted in teaching specialist subjects to younger classes, with

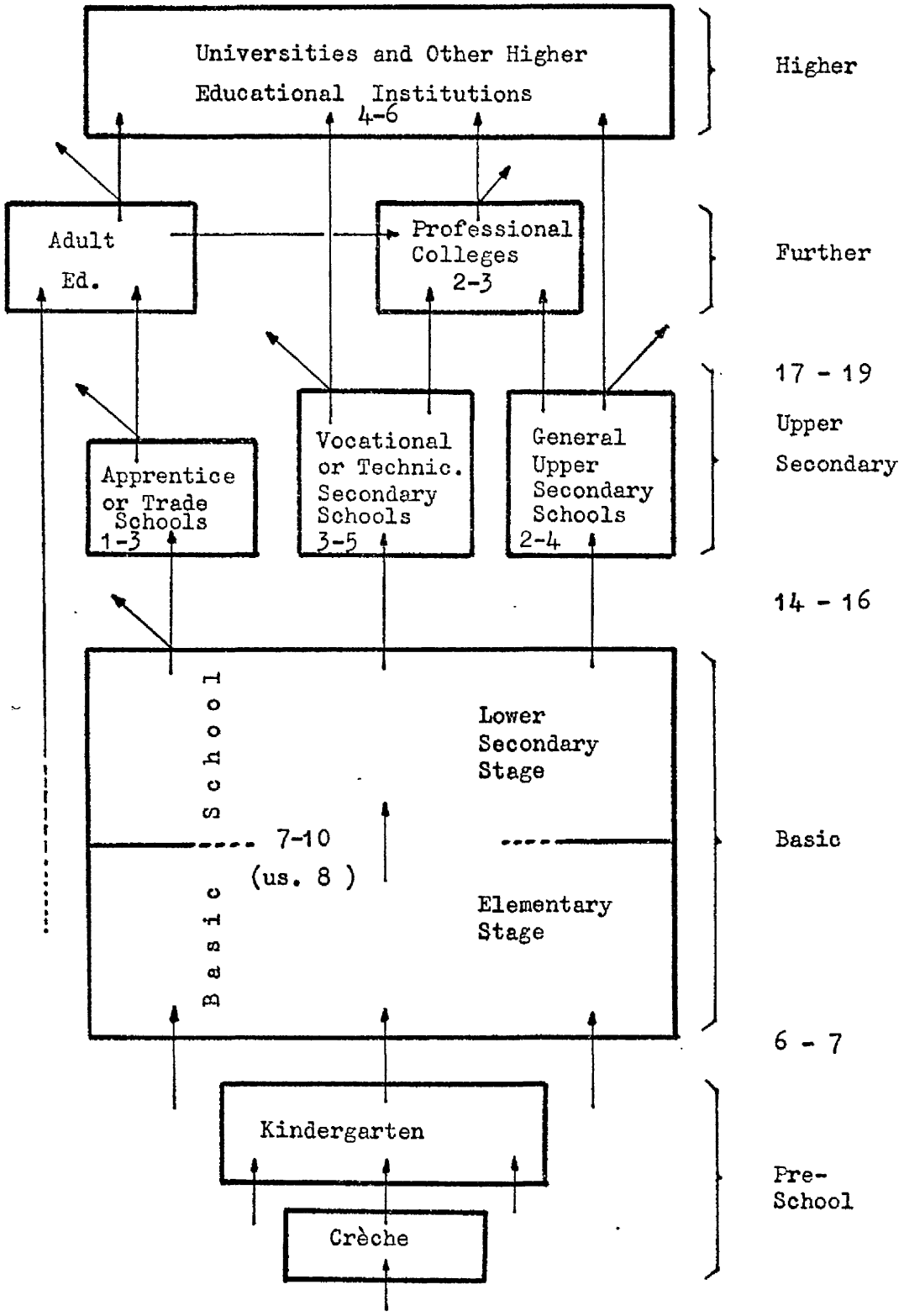
similarly declared aims.[102] In the USSR, steps are being taken (partial as yet) to begin subject specialist teaching from the beginning of class IV, instead of V as at present.

(2) In most cases, the basic school (stages I and II) coincides with the period of compulsory schooling. But there are exceptions: East Germany requires attendance at a Berufsschule for those not otherwise at school until 18; Hungary has a "continuation school" from 14 to 16 for those not going on to other kinds of secondary school (though some exceptions are made for certain categories of employment); in Rumania, there are moves to extend the range of compulsory schooling from eight to ten years, possibly by adding on a year at each end;[103] and in the USSR, it is current policy to extend compulsory schooling from 8 to 10 years by 1970.[104]

(3) In some cases, the division between the basic and upper secondary courses is also becoming less clear-cut, the three stages being run together as a continuous all-through course. This is true of the USSR and Bulgaria, and in many Rumanian and Hungarian schools the same is true in effect if not in theory.

The general pattern of schooling, and the major national variants, with some specimen curricula, are set out in the following tables and diagram.

Fig. 1 : Diagram of Typical School System in the U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe



Direct arrows indicate route to further courses.
Oblique arrows indicate route to employment.
Figures in boxes indicate normal length of courses.
Stages of the system, and approximate ages, are shown on the right.

TABLE I. 1

U.S.S.R. - GENERAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM

(R.S F S.R. Draft, 1965).

Hours per Week in Class:	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
1. Russian Language	12/10	10	10	7	5	3	3	2	-	-
2. Literature	-	-	-	3	2	2	2	3/4	3	3
3. Mathematics	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	5
4. History	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	3	5/4	3
5. Social Study	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	2
6. Nature Study	0/2	2	2	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
7. Geography	-	-	-	-	2	3	2	2	2	-
8. Biology	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	-	2
9. Physics	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	3/2	5	5
10. Astronomy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
11. Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	3/4	3
12. Technical Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	-	-
13. Foreign Language	-	-	-	-	5	4	4	2	2	2
14. Art	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-	-
15. Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	-	-
16. Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
17. Labour Training	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	4	4
Total Hours Weekly	24	24	24	27	31	32	32	32	32	32
Options	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	4	4	4

Note: This Draft was drawn up by a commission of the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the R.S.F.S.R. in 1965, and is being introduced in modified form, by stages up to 1970. (APN RSFSR : Obshchaya ob'yasnitel'naya zapiska k pererabotannym proektam uchebnogo plana i programm srednei shkoly, pp. 9 - 10. Moscow 1965).

TABLE I. 2

YUGOSLAVIA : BASIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM (Draft 1960)

	Class	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1.	Serbo-Croat Language and Literature	6	6	6	5	5	5	4	4
2.	Mathematics	5	5	5	5	4	4	3	3
3.	Study of Nature and Society	4	4	4					
	(a) Study of Nature				3	3	3		
	(i) Physics							3	3
	(ii) Chemistry							2	2
	(iii) Biology							2	2
	(b) Study of Society				3	3			
	(i) Geography						2	2	2
	(ii) History						2	2	2
4.	Foreign Language					3	3	3	3
5.	Polytechnical Education				2	2	2	2	2
6.	Socialist morals							1	1
7.	Physical and Health Education	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
8.	Art	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
9.	Music	1	1	2	2	2	2	1	1
10.	Domestic Science						1	1	1
	Total Hours Weekly	21	21	22	25	27	28	30	30

TABLE I.3

YUGOSLAVIA : GIMNAZIJA CURRICULUM

Class	I	II	III	IV
1. Serbo-Croat Language - Literature	4	4/3	4/3	4/3
2. History	3	3/2	3/2	3/0
3. Foreign Language(s)	3	4/3	4/3	5/2
4. Latin	2	2	"	"
5. Sociology - polit. economy	"	"	2/0	3/2
6. Social organisation in Yugoslavia	2	1	"	"
7. Logic and Psychology	"	"	2	"
8. Philosophy	"	"	"	3/1
9. Drawing	2	1	1/0	2/0
10. Mathematics	4	3/4	2/4	2/5
11. Physics	2	2/3	2/3	0/3
12. Chemistry	"	2	2/3	0/2
13. Biology	2	2	2	0/2
14. Geography	3	2	"	2
15. Plant Geometry	"	0/2	0/2	0/2
16. General Technical Education	1	2/1	2	2
17. Pre-Military Training	"	"	2	2
18. Physical Education	3	3	3	3
Total Hours Weekly :	31	31	31	31

Alternate entries thus : 4/3 indicates 4 hours for specialists in the humanities, 3 for specialists in the sciences.

TABLE I.4

RUMANIA : BASIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Class	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
1. Rumanian Language	12	11	9	7	4	4	4	4
2. Foreign Language	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3
3. History	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	2
4. Civics	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
5. Tutorials	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1
Total for Humanities	12	11	9	10	10	10	10	11
6. Mathematics	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	4
7. Physics	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2
8. Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2
9. Nature Study	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-
10. Biology	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	1
11. Geography	-	-	2	2	2	2	1	2
Total Hours for Maths/Science	5	5	7	8	8	10	11	11
12. Drawing	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1
13. Writing	-	1	1	1	1	-	-	-
14. Music	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
15. Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1
Total for PE/Aesthetic Group	6	7	7	7	6	5	4	4
16. Practical Work	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-
17. Wood & Metal Work (town)	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
Agriculture (village)	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	3
Total for Practical Subjects	1	1	1	1	2/3	2/3	2/3	2/3
Total Hours Weekly	32	32	32	32	35	35	35	31

TABLE I.5

RUMANIA : LYCÉE CURRICULUM

Class	I	II	III	IV
1. Rumanian Language and Literature	3	3/4	3/4	3/4
2. 1st Modern Language	3	3	3	3
2nd Modern Language	3	3	3	3
3. Latin	2	-/2	-/2	-/2
4. History	2	2	2	2
5. History of World Literature	-	-	-/1	-
6. Psychology	-	-	-	1
7. Logic	-	-	-	1
8. Political Economy	-	-	2	-
9. Scientific Socialism	-	-	-	2
Total for Humanities	13	11/14	13/17	15/18
10. Mathematics	4	5/3	6/3	5/2
11. Astronomy	-	-	-	1
12. Physics	3	4/3	4/3	3/2
13. Chemistry	2	2	2	2
14. Biology	2	2	2	1/2
15. Geography	2	2	-	2
Total for Science Subjects	13	15/12	14/10	14/11
16. Drawing	1	1/1	-	-
17. Music	1	1	1	-
18. Physical Education	2	2	2	-
Total for PE/Aesthetic Group	4	4	3	2
19. Industry and Agriculture	1	1	1	1
20. Industrial Practice	Town : 3 day per town			
21. Agriculture Practice	Village : 12 Days per town			
Total for practical Subjects	1	1	1	1
Tutorials	1	1	1	1
Total Hours Weekly	32	32	32	32

Alternate entries shown thus : 3/4 indicate 3 hours for science specialists, four for humanities specialists.
Drawing in Class II (1/1) indicates technical drawing for science specialists, art for humanities specialists.

TABLE I.6

CZECHOSLOVAKIA : BASIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX
1. Czech/Slovak lang= Lit	11	13	10	8	8	6	6	5	5
2. Russian Language	-	-	-	2	2	2	3	3	3
3. Civics	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	1
4. History	-	-	-	-	-	1	2	2	2
5. Geography	-	-	-	-	-	3	2	2	-
6. Mathematics	4	5	5	5	5	6	5	5	5
7. Homeland & Nature Study	-	-	3	3	4	-	-	-	-
8. Physics	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	3
9. Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	3
10. Natural Science	-	-	-	-	-	3	2	2	2
11. Physical Education	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2
12. Art	1	1	1	2	2	2	2	2	-
13. Technical Drawing	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2
14. Writing	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-
15. Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
16. Practical Training	1	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3
Total	21	24	24	26	27	30	31	32	32
17. Optional Subjects	-	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2
18. Hobby Groups	-	-	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Optional Subjects : English, German, French, Choral Singing, Art.

TABLE I.7

VARIANTS OF THE SCHOOL STRUCTURE

	U.S.S.R.	Yugoslavia	Rumania	Poland	Czechoslovakia	Hungary	Bulgaria	E. Germany
Basic School (Stages I-II)	Eight-year School	Basic School	Basic School	Basic School	Basic 9-Year School	General School	Basic School	Oberschule
Length of Course	8	8	8	8	9	8	8	10
Stage I : Classes	I-IV (I-III)	I-IV	I-IV	I-IV	I-IV	I-IV	I-IV	3-stage Division
Stage II: Classes	V-VIII (IV-VIII)	V-VIII	V-VIII	V-VIII	V-IX	V-VIII	V-VIII	I-IV, V-VI, VII- X
Age- Range	7 - 15	7 - 15	7 - 15	7 - 15	6 - 15	6 - 14	7 - 15	6 - 16
Compulsory to :	15	15	15	15	15	16	15	16
Stage III (General Ed.)	Sec. polytech. school	gimnazija	liceul	liceum	general sec. school	gimnazium	gymnasium	erweiterte Oberschule
Length of Course	2	4	4	4	3	4	3	2
Total Years General Education	10	12	12	12	12	12	11	12
Other Stage III Schools III b.	Sec. spec. school	Technical school	(Specialised lycée)	Technical school	sec. tech. school	Technikum	technical school	Berufsschule mit Abitur
Length of Course	3-4	4	4-5	4	3	4	4	2
III c.	voc. tech. school	Vocational school	Vocational school	Vocational school	Apprentice school	Appr. or Voc. school	Vocational school	Berufsschule
Length of course	1-3	2-3	3	2-3	2	2-3	2-3	2
Basic + III : whether usually unified :	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes

Summary.

The state of the educational systems of the USSR and Eastern Europe after World War II, and the major developments since then, are outlined. In the case of the USSR, the existing system, and the effects on it of the devastations of the War, are considered. Eastern Europe is more complicated, not only because of the demographic, economic and historical intricacies, but because of the pre-existing systems and the problems involved in their transformation. Varying greatly in extent and effectiveness, they nonetheless shared a number of important characteristics: high academic standards at secondary and higher level, narrowness (both in content and social complexion) in this sector, terminal elementary schooling generally of a much lower standard, frequently high proportions of illiteracy, and neglect of vocational, technical and other viable alternatives to selective academic secondary schools. In most cases, the problems were exacerbated by war damage and loss of life.

Of the tasks facing the post-war régimes, expansion (for socio-political as well as economic reasons) was the most obvious. This, in the political context of the post-war communist regimes, involved a change to mass systems, with greatly widened access to academic secondary education. At the same time, economic as well as political considerations led to a shift of emphasis towards technical and vocational schooling at secondary and higher

levels, and polytechnical education (variously interpreted) in the general schools. In the process of transformation, the system of the USSR was widely used as a "working model" for modifications of the existing systems. Post-war changes, and further developments up to the present, are observed in Rumania, Yugoslavia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Hungary and Bulgaria.

Developments in the USSR are outlined up to 1966, with particular reference to the "Khrushchov reforms" of 1958, their subsequent modification in 1964, and the measures of 1966. What emerges is a fundamental re-examination of Khrushchov's attempts to "polytechnise" the general school, a reversion to an earlier policy of extending general compulsory schooling to ten years, and thus the development of mass secondary as well as basic education, with the many problems that this entails.

Finally, for the sake of clarity, a scheme of nomenclature is proposed that can describe the different types of school and course throughout the USSR and Eastern Europe. Within this framework, the main types of school in the present systems are outlined, thus setting the context for examination of the problems of training and supply of teachers for these schools.

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4. Ibid.

5. J.A. Newth, of Glasgow University Institute of Soviet and East European Studies.

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7. Finansy SSSR, 10, 1966, pp. 10-11. In Lithuania, 83.2% of the schools are reported to be working on one shift only, 83.1% in Latvia, 76.5% in Estonia, 78.9% in the Ukraine.

8. Up to 1968; it is still too early to estimate the degree of educational deviation likely in Czechoslovakia.

9. This was quite clearly stated in conversations with members of the Institute of Pedagogy in Warsaw, and the National Pedagogical Institute in Budapest, September 1966. In similar conversations in the Ministry of Education in Bucharest, 1965, this aspect was played down.

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38. Ibid.

39. Mieczyslaw Pęcherski, Das Schulwesen in Volkspolen, p. 289. (In: DPZI, op. cit.)

40. See Martin Gilbert, Recent History Atlas. (Weidenfeld and Nicholson, 1966.)

41. e. g. Geliazkova, op. cit.; Anghel Manolache, General Education in Rumania, pp. 7-15. (Meridiane, Bucharest, 1965.)

42. Ghiţa Ionescu, The Break-Up of the Soviet Empire in Eastern Europe, pp. 123-133. (Penguin, 1965.)

43. Nicholas Hans, The Russian Tradition in Education (Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1963.)

44. Harold Noah, Financing Soviet Schools, pp. 109-113 (Columbia, 1966.)

45. Naiden Čakarov, op. cit., p. 137.

46. Haase and Rosen, op. cit., p. 2.

47. Čakarov, op. cit., pp. 139-142

48. Mieczyslaw Pęcherski, op. cit., pp. 291 ff.

49. Márton Horváth, loc. cit.

50. International Yearbook of Education, 1949, pp. 106-107

51. Rodoljub Čolaković, preamble to The General Law on Education in Yugoslavia, Belgrade, 1959.

52. Ministry of Education of the Rumanian People's Republic The Educational Movement in 1964-1965, p. 21 (Meridiane, Bucharest, 1965.)

53. Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej, Raport la cel de-al III-lea Congres al Partidului Muncitoresc Român, 1960. Quoted in: Dancsuly, Ghircev and Manolache (eds.) Pedagogia, p. 80. (Editură Didactică şi Pedagogigică, Bucharest, 1965.)

54. The Soviet school reforms at the end of 1958 were followed in 1959-1961 by laws couched in very similar terms in most of the East European countries; they deffered in detail, but shared a common preoccupation with polytechnical education and expansion of the systems.

55. See Table I, 5. In Poland and Hungary, "social studies" courses did not make their appearance until 1966, but had been preceded by courses on philiosphy in the upper secondary schools.

56. See Table I, 5.

57. See Table I, 3, 5.

58. Művelődésügyi Minisztérium: Tantery és Utasítás a Gimnáziumok számára. (Tankönyvkiadó, Budapest, 1965.)

59. This is the interpretation of Dr. Edvard Fleming (a Pole, in spite of his name) of the Institute of Pedagogy, Warsaw. (Conversation, September 1966).

60. Rumania also converted the Institute of Russian Language and Literature "M. Gorky" into the Bucharest University Institute of Foreign Languages, with Russian only one language among many.

61. Bereday, Brickman and Read, op. cit.

62. Ob ukreplenii svyazi shkoly s zhiznyu i dal'neishego razvitiya sistemy narodnogo obrazovaniya v SSSR, 1958.

63. Herbert C. Rudman, The School and State in the USSR, p. 195. (New York, 1967.)

64. N. S. Khrushchov, Proposals to Reform Soviet Education Soviet Booklet No. 42, October 1958.)

65. Narodnoe Khozyaistvo SSSR v 1965 godu: Statisticheskii Yezhegodnik (Statistika, Moscow, 1966.)

66. Harold Noah, Financing Soviet Schools, pp. 105 ff. (Columbia, 1967.)

67. Ibid.

68. N. S. Khrushchov, op. cit.

69. Ibid.

70. V TsK KPSS i Sovete Ministrov SSSR: Ob izmenenii sroka obucheniya v srednikh obshcheobrazovatel'nykh trudovykh politekhnicheskikh shkolakh s proizvodstvennym obucheniem. (Sovietskaya Rossiya, 25 August 1964.)

71. E. I. Afanasenko, Chto novogo v shkole? (Sovietskaya Rossiya, 25 August 1964.)

72. Desyatiletnaya, Trudovaya, Politekhnicheskaya. (Uchitel'skaya gazeta, 15 August 1964.)

73. Ibid.

74. Konsul 'tatsiya Ministerstva prosveshcheniya RSFSR. (Uchitel 'skaya gazeta, 15 August 1964.)

75. Desyatiletnyana, Trudovaya, Politekhnicheskaya. (Uch. gaz. 15 August 1964.)

76. Kons. Minpros. RSFSR (Uch. gaz. 15 August 1964.)

77. E. I. Afanasenko, loc. cit.

78. Novyi uchebnyi god: kakim on budet v shkole? (Sovietskaya Rossiya, 13 August 1964.)

79. Des. Trud. Pol. (Uch. gaz. 15 August 1964.)

80. Chto novogo v shkole? (Sovietskaya Rossiya, 25 August 1964.)

81. Novyi uchebnyi god. (Sovietskaya Rossiya 13 August 1964.)

82. Herbert C. Rudman, loc. cit.

83. Akademiya pedagogicheskikh nauk RSFSR, op. cit.

84. Kons. Minpros RSFSR (Uch. gaz. 15 August 1964.)

85. Deistvovat' edinnym frontom (Uchitel 'skaya gazeta, 3 July 1965.)

86. V TsK KPSS i Sovete Ministrov SSSR: O merakh dal'neishego uluchsheniya raboty srednei obshchcobrazovatel'noi shkoly. (Pravda, 19 November 1966.)

87. M.A. Prokofiev, Vuzy - Shkole (Vestnik Vysshei shkoly, 9, 1966, p. 7)

88. M.A. Prokofiev, K novomu pod'emu sovietskoi shkoly. (Uchitel 'skaya gazeta, 26 November 1966.)

89. Ibid. (Emphasis mine - N.G.)

90. K. Ivanovich, D, Epstein, Znaniya, Politekhnizm, Trud. (Uch. gaz., 20 May 1967.)

91. Ibid.

92. M.A. Prokofiev, Segodnya i zavtra nashei shkoly. (Pravda, 12 December 1966.)

93. E.g., F. Baikov, Politekhnizm i fiziko-biologicheskie opyty. (Narodnoe obrazovanie, 2, 1967, pp. 53-57).

94. V Ts K Kpss i Sovete Ministrov SSSR (Uch. gaz. 8 February 1966.)

95. V TsK KPSS i Sovete Ministrov SSSR (Pravda, 19 Dec. 1966). A.I. Markushevich, Stupeni obucheniya (Pravda, 8 December 1966.)

96. Such a pattern is being introduced in all Moscow basic schools from 1 September 1968, and experimentally in selected schools in other parts of the RSFSR. (Conversations at the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR and at the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the USSR, Moscow, April 1968.)

97. V Ministerstve prosveshcheniya SSSR (Uch. gaz., 7 February 1967.)
V Ministerstve prosveshcheniya RSFSR (Uch. gaz., 13 April 1967.)

98. Deistvovat' edinym frontom. (Uch. gaz., 3 July 1965.)

99. E. g., Ya. Pilipovskii, Sel 'skii Uchitel' - problemy, suzhdeniya. (Uch. gaz., 25 May 1967.)
Sledovat' dobrym primeram. (Uch. gaz., 22 July 1967).

100. See Chapter V.

101. Tables I, 2, 6.

102. Stanciu Stoian, Cercetări privind experimantarea noului sistem de predare la clasele I-IV. (Revista de Pedagogie, 5, 1965, pp. 24-42.)
P. Popescu-Neveanu, Particularităţile pedagogice ale sistemului profesor-obiect la clasele mici. (Revista de Pedagogie, 8, 1965, pp. 21-30.)

103. Stanciu Stoian, Un obiectiv important al politicii noastre. (Revista de Pedagogie, 8, 1965, pp. 5-17.)

104. V TsK KPSS i Sovete Ministrov SSSR (Pravda, 19 Nov. 1966.)

CHAPTER II

The Demands on Teacher Training

1. The Post-War Development of the Educational Systems.
2. Changes in Orientation.
3. Demands on Teacher Training arising from Post-War Developments.

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Chapter II

Chapter II

The Requirements for Teacher Training

Having considered some of the major changes in the educational systems of the Eastern European countries in the post-war period, let us now look at them as they affected teacher training. The most obvious common factor has been growth in absolute numbers. This, however, was not everywhere apparent immediately after the war and the establishment of the various communist regimes. In certain cases, the toll of life taken during the war itself was reflected in a drop in the birth-rate, which reduced the pressure on the existing school places, and to some extent masked the amount of ground to be made up. In Yugoslavia, where one in nine of the population was killed, the enrolment figures show this clearly enough, but the most obvious example in this respect is Poland, where the loss of life amounted to one in five of the entire population. The beginning of the post-war period thus showed an actual drop in the number of pupils in the basic schools, from 4,365,000 in 1937-38 to 3,283,000 in 1946-47. Much of this can be put down to territorial changes; the cession to the USSR of the areas east of the Curzon line reduced the population of Poland by some 10 millions, and although there was <u>territorial</u> compensation in the form of the Oder-Neisse lands taken from Germany, the population of these areas was largely expelled, so that the new acquisition took some time to re-populate. This loss, and the gap in the birth-rate, made themselves felt for a long time; the basic

TABLE E. 1

POLAND : DEVELOPMENT OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM, 1937-1964 (In Thousands)

	1937-1938	1946-1947	1947-1948	1948-1949	1949-1950	1950-1951	1951-1952	1952-1953	1953-1954	1954-1955	1955-1956	1956-1957	1957-1958	1958-1959	1959-1960	1960-1961	1961-1962	1962-1963	1963-1964
Basic Schools :																			
Pupils	4865	3283	3405	3375	3353	3282	3177	3038	3087	3208	3386	3655	3925	4240	4574	4823	4994	5117	5182
Graduates	127	144	173	217	269	328	367	345	327	305	271	273	274	292	389	471	529	575	-
Teachers	77	67	75	76	-	82	86	90	93	96	103	110	120	130	140	148	151	157	160
General Lyceums :																			
Pupils	221	228	202	219	221	194	186	187	183	195	201	203	195	199	214	260	298	340	379
Graduates	14	12	14	17	24	41	26	29	28	30	30	30	28	28	30	34	387	48	-
Adult Basic Schools :																			
Pupils	15	31	47	50	57	57	52	62	63	69	72	68	46	55	61	88	86	87	78
Graduates	-	8	11	15	16	15	15	21	23	27	29	25	17	23	27	38	39	44	-
Adult General Lyceums:																			
Pupils	-	43	45	41	38	35	43	42	42	42	54	56	51	60	67	76	84	94	104
Graduates	-	6	8	5	5	6	5	5	4	4	5	5	6	8	10	11	14	14	-
Vocational Schools :																			
Pupils	208	287	408	498	558	617	619	541	529	513	503	495	491	547	645	784	978	1184	1378
Graduates	41	41	65	112	95	124	221	146	130	109	102	87	67	106	102	140	166	201	-
Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28	28	29	31	32	32	31	33	34	37	40	45
Higher Education :																			
Students	50	87	95	104	116	125	142	131	140	155	158	170	168	157	161	166	172	199	218
Graduates	6	4	5	7	15	22	37	24	23	27	22	19	19	16	21	22	20	28	-
Teachers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14	15	17	18	19	19	19	19	19	19	20	21

Source : Polska w Liczbach 1964

school enrolment continued to fall until it was down to 3,038,000 in 1952-53, from which point it began to climb again, ever more steeply as the birth rate caught up, topping the five million mark by 1962. (See Table II. 1.)[1] The overall picture, then, is one of delayed but considerable growth, and, with some fluctuations, this can be observed in the other sectors of the educational system as well.

But the delay in increase was noticeable in countries where the losses in the second world war were of a much smaller order. In Rumania, for instance, there were 1,604,000 pupils in general educational schools of all types before the war (1938-39). In the first year of the new system (1948-49) the number had increased to 1,846,200, and from there began to fall off, until it was down to 1,718,000 by 1954-55. From that point the numbers began to climb again, passing two million by 1958, three million by 1963. On closer examination, however, we find that the drop is accounted for mainly in the primary classes, and this in turn can be related to the birth-rate, which took a sharp downward turn during the war, recovered again between 1946 and 1949, and then began to fall again which (apart from a partial recovery from 1953-55) it has continued to do. The total population increase was due more to a fall in the death rate than any increase in births.[2] As one might expect, then, the enrolment of pupils in the primary classes has begun to level off; but there has been a steady increase since 1955 in the <u>total</u> number of pupils in general educational schools. Further,

TABLE II.2

RUMANIA : DEVELOPMENT OF GENERAL EDUCATION 1938-1966

19 -	38-39	48-49	49-50	50-51	51-52	52-53	53-54	54-55	55-56	56-57	57-58	58-59	59-60	60-61	61-62	62-63	63-64	64-65	65-66
I. Schools :																			
Primary Schools	12,800	11,400	11,000	11,000	10,900	10,800	10,700	10,900	11,100	11,300	11,400	11,300	10,000	8,900	8,100	7,800	7,500	7,500	7,400
Basic Schools	0,800	3,300	4,100	4,300	4,500	4,400	4,600	4,500	4,400	4,200	4,300	4,500	5,100	6,200	6,900	7,100	7,400	7,500	7,600
Lycées	0,211	0,217	0,219	0,224	0,232	0,257	0,301	0,343	0,370	0,405	0,433	0,454	0,513	0,562	0,576	0,514	0,551	0,555	0,556
Total	13,865	14,988	15,354	15,556	15,594	15,520	15,645	15,751	15,893	15,963	16,116	16,222	15,600	15,638	15,638	15,496	15,496	15,473	15,521
II. Pupils in Classes : (000)																			
I-IV	1,456,4	1,506,7	1,444,9	1,378,1	1,335,5	1,224,2	1,196,3	1,171,8	1,189,1	1,296,1	1,375,0	1,452,1	1,508,4	1,516,2	1,527,0	1,561,7	1,574,5	1,575,6	1,552,5
V-VII (VIII)	119,1	284,5	344,8	399,9	430,2	448,2	467,9	442,3	413,9	418,2	444,0	511,7	627,0	830,1	1,012,8	1,132,7	1,107,3	1,416,0	1,434,8
VIII (IX) - XI	29,0	55,0	58,0	59,9	64,4	69,8	88,8	103,8	129,1	144,9	156,3	181,1	203,0	241,5	268,4	333,6	376,6	329,8	359,8
Totals	1,604,4	1,846,2	1,847,8	1,837,9	1,830,1	1,742,1	1,753,0	1,718,0	1,732,1	1,859,3	1,975,3	2,144,8	2,338,4	2,587,9	2,808,2	3,028,0	3,058,3	3,321,4	3,347,1
III. Pupils leaving Class : (000)																			
IV	237,0	287,6	289,2	280,2	320,4	302,3	270,1	266,5	236,3	264,1	262,1	285,4	335,0	352,9	349,6	352,2	348,2	361,3	-
VII (VIII)	17,2	55,6	73,9	82,0	102,1	113,5	108,1	107,7	106,6	99,4	107,5	116,7	145,6	182,2	246,2	329,7	-	306,7	-
XI	4,2	11,5	11,1	8,3	13,4	11,7	26,1	17,6	29,3	29,3	10,2	30,7	36,8	46,6	46,3	55,3	62,3	68,9	-
IV. Teachers in Classes : (000)																			
I - IV	36,7	44,3	45,2	44,2	44,0	44,3	44,2	46,0	46,5	48,3	50,1	51,8	53,0	53,5	52,9	52,8	54,9	56,5	57,4
V - XI	8,7	20,7	24,5	26,1	28,9	33,1	36,1	38,2	37,1	39,7	40,4	43,2	44,4	50,1	57,9	66,2	70,3	78,8	83,9
Totals	45,4	65,0	69,7	70,3	73,0	77,4	80,3	84,2	83,5	87,9	90,5	95,0	97,4	103,7	110,8	119,1	125,2	135,3	141,4

Source : Anuarul Statistic R.S.R. 1966

TABLE 11.3

U.S.S.R. PUPILS AND STUDENTS BY TYPE OF COURSE, 1940-1966 (In Millions)

	1940-41	1950-51	1958-59	1960-61	1964-65	1965-66
Pupils in Classes I-IV	31.4	19.7	17.7	18.6	19.9	20.2
Pupils in Classes V-VIII	11.9	12.8	9.6	13.2	17.7	18.1
Pupils in Classes IX-XI	1.2	0.7	2.2	1.5	4.2	4.8
Total in primary, 7-Year, 8-year and secondary schools	34.8	33.3	29.6	33.4	42.0	43.4
Students in schools for working and rural youth	0.3	1.4	1.9	2.8	4.7	4.9
Total in general educational schools	35.0	34.8	31.5	36.2	46.7	48.3
Students in:						
Vocational technical schools	0.7	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.6	1.7
Secondary specialised schools	1.0	1.3	1.9	2.1	3.3	3.7
Higher Educational institutions	0.8	1.3	2.2	2.4	3.6	3.9
Improvement and re-training courses	9.5	10.6	9.6	10.8	13.7	14.4
Total pupils and students	47.5	48.8	46.1	52.6	68.9	71.8

Source : Nar. Khoz. 1965

the growth in the numbers in secondary classes has, with only minor fluctuations, been rising ever since the end of the war. The policy of enforcing elementary schooling, therefore, seems to have made its impact on the enrolment figures fairly quickly, but the expansion of places for the older age-groups - previously the concern, as we have seen, of a minority - has been slower, and the ceiling has not been reached yet. The birth-rate notwithstanding, therefore, the provision of more places in the school system has been a major factor throughout the post-war period, a state of affairs which seems likely to last for many years to come. (See Table II. 2.)[3]

Among all the national variations, it is the USSR that stands out as an exception in this matter. At the outbreak of the war (1941), there were 36.6 million pupils in general educational schools. By 1950, even after the immediate period of post-war reconstruction, this figure was down to 34.8 million, and by the end of the 1950s had fallen even further to 31.5 million. Thereafter, there was a substantial increase to 36.2 million in 1960-61, and by 1965 it was up to 48.3 million, and still rising. (See Table II. 3.)[4]

In contrast with most of the other countries under consideration, therefore, the USSR has had a growing system only within the present decade. The most obvious reason for this, of course, is the war-time drop in the birth-rate, plus the fact that unlike many of the other countries the USSR already had a fairly effective mass

educational system, at the primary level at least. The task of reconstruction was at least as pressing in the Soviet Union as elsewhere, but there was not the same kind of transition required from a minority to a mass system as in, say, Poland or Yugoslavia. The growth of the system, therefore, was a more long-term consideration in the USSR than elsewhere.

But the increase in the total number of pupils is far from being the whole story. Mention has already been made of the pattern of post-primary education in the pre-war school systems of Eastern Europe - terminal elementary or lower secondary classes (if that) for the majority, and secondary schools proper mainly for the small minority going on to higher education or into professional or clerical occupations. This could not be accepted under the new dispensation, for political and social as well as instructional reasons, and we have already seen how the terminal elementary and lower secondary schools, together with the lower forms of the academic secondary schools, were grafted on to the elementary schools, thus forming a basic comprehensive unit. The remaining higher forms of the lycées and gymnasia were reconstructed as upper secondary schools, and although expansion at this stage was generally envisaged, there were variations in policy as to its extent and means. But everywhere there was a commitment to expanding what was now the secondary stage of the basic school until it embraced the entire age-group; as the figures make clear (see those for Rumania, for example) this took a long time to achieve, and in some cases is not quite complete even yet; but the policy

was clearly understood from the beginning.

The position of the upper general secondary schools was less clear, and is complicated by the greater increase in other types of course beyond the basic school stage - vocational schools, secondary technical schools, and the like. In Poland,[5] for instance, the growth of the general lyceums has been real but irregular and relatively modest - from 228,000 pupils in 1946-47 down to 187,000 in 1952-53, then up again (with another dip in the late 1950s) to 379,000 by 1964. But during the same period adult general lyceums continued to expand, as did vocational schools of all kinds - from 208,000 students before the war to 287,000 in 1946-47, rising to 619,000 in 1951-52 then, after a slight downward turn in the mid-1950s, up again to 645,000 in 1959-60, and after that rising steadily to 1,373,000 by 1963-64. Many of these schools offer courses of general education equivalent to the lyceums, and thus indicate a greater number in upper secondary courses than the figures for general lyceums might suggest by themselves. The same is true of Yugoslavia, where the number of students in gimnazije actually fell during most of the period under consideration, passing the pre-war figure only in 1963-64 (when the enrolment was 142,000 as against 125,000 in 1938; see Table V.10.) But the other types of upper secondary school increased during the same period, from 211,000 students in 1938-39 to over half a million in 1964; and whereas the gimnazija accounted for nearly 60 per cent of all secondary students before the war, it has dropped to little over 25 per cent

(sometimes even less) in the past couple of decades.

But although the expansion of vocational and technical secondary schools has often meant a relative and even on occasions an absolute decline in the position of the lycées or gymnasia, this has not meant an increase of vocational education simply at the expense of general; schools of the tekhnikum type (like the technical schools in Yugoslavia or Poland, and similar schools in every other country with the exception, until recently, of Rumania) provide secondary general education as well as technical or professional training, leading to the same kind of school leaving examination as the more traditional academic secondary schools. Whatever the changes in the balance of various types of schools, therefore, the net result was an increase in the number of students following general courses beyond the basic school stage.[5] In the USSR where, as we have seen,[6] total expansion of general schools was delayed by a number of factors, there has been a constant increase in the numbers enrolled in tekhnikumy and other secondary specialised institutions, from one million in 1940-41 to 3.7 million in 1965-66 - a much greater increase than in the vocational-technical schools, where the general educational element has always been more modest.[7] This trend was apparent even when the numbers in the general upper secondary schools were falling; and this applies even to the time before the 1966 resolution[8] envisaged the expansion of upper secondary schooling to include the entire age-group in one way or another - the Khrushchov reforms, after all, did not involve

the reduction of numbers in upper secondary education, but was concerned rather with the balance between full and part-time schooling. In the USSR as elsewhere, then, the rise in demand was foreseeable shortly after the end of the second world war.

2. Changes in Orientation

The changes of direction of the post-war systems in Eastern Europe have already been mentioned. Apart from the transformation from selective to mass systems - obvious enough from the figures as well as the policy declarations - the major changes that concern us here are the shift of emphasis to science and technology, and the new political alignments required by the communist régimes. The second of these, of course, was already a long-established feature of the Soviet system, and was now applied, in various ways, in the other countries. Whatever else they did, the schools were to serve the needs of socialist societies, not only by producing personnel with the necessary skills and knowledge, but by instilling the approved attitudes on political matters and, if possible, securing enthusiasm as well as acceptance.

The greater emphasis on science and technology, resting on both ideological and practical grounds, manifested itself in various ways. As the examination of the enrolment figures has already demonstrated, one of these was the growth of vocational and technical secondary schools (a development paralleled, incidentally, in the higher educational system). Another was an increase in the teaching of the sciences in the general schools, both at lower and upper secondary levels; and, finally, there was the later development of polytechnical education, from handwork in the earlier classes to more elaborate skills in the senior ones.

TABLE II.4

RUMANIA : TEACHERS IN GENERAL EDUCATIONAL SCHOOLS.
1938 - 1959, and PROJECTED TO 1965 AND 1975

	1938	1950	1959	1965	1975
Total teachers for general educ. schools	46,435	71,992	95,384	130,228	137,328
Teachers of Classes I - IV	36,665	44,208	51,810	54,700	55,150
(% of Total	78.95	61.40	54.31	42.00	40.06
Teachers of Classes V +	9,770	27,784	43,584	75,528	82,178
(% of Total)	21.03	38.59	45.69	57.99	59.84
Kindergarten Teachers	1,815	5,826	10,103	16,400	34,400

Source : Ref. 9

3. Demands on Teacher Training Arising from Post-War Developments

The policy of general improvement of educational provision after the war involved, naturally, a desire to improve the standard of teacher training. A general commitment of this kind, however, is inclined to be rather vague, and is as difficult to assess as it is easy to declare; but the changes that we have observed in the structure and direction of the post-war systems presented certain major, and more specific tasks, to the teacher training systems:

(1) More teachers. As we have seen, the general trend in the Eastern European countries was towards greater numbers of places in general educational courses of all kinds. In spite of some instances of numbers falling off temporarily, the logic of the development of the systems implied a long-term over-all increase - even in the USSR, where special factors combined to delay its realisation until the 1960s. This, together with the persistence in many cases, such as Poland and Yugoslavia, of uncomfortably high pupil-teacher ratios at the primary level (see Table V, 10) meant that one of the major priorities had to be a substantial growth in the number of teachers.

(2) More secondary specialist teachers for the upper secondary schools. It has been shown that in spite of variations of policy relating to the numbers of students in the general upper secondary schools, the overall tendency was for these to increase;

and even where this was not so for some time, the numbers taking general courses in some kind of school at this level increased universally, thus calling for a greater supply of specialist teachers. This was a task mainly for the universities and equivalent institutions.

(3) Teachers for the lower secondary stage of the basic school. The increase of numbers at the lower secondary stage has been, on the whole, more significant than at primary or upper secondary level. But the requirement for teachers in this instance was more than a matter of sheer numbers (though this was to be a big enough task in itself for some time to come). The post-war changes meant more than expanding the availability of courses at this stage; in effect, the terminal elementary classes were replaced by the lower forms of the old secondary school. Thus, what was involved was not the extension of a superior form of terminal elementary teaching, but of secondary specialist teaching, hitherto almost as much a minority concern as the upper secondary schools. This was a more significant development than the by no means negligible expansion of upper secondary schools, since it meant specialist teaching of sciences, mathematics, foreign languages, etc., to the entire age-range from 11 to 14 or 15, with the possibility of further extension still. The figures show how long this took in the more backward countries; not only did more teachers have to be provided for the "middle tier" of the school system, but their standard had to be raised as well.

The expansion of the whole secondary range, then, meant that the balance of the teaching force was bound to undergo drastic alteration. Naturally, this was most obvious is those countries where the secondary stage had been relatively underdeveloped, but the experience was general, if varied in extent. In Rumania, for example, secondary teachers of all kinds made up 21.03 per cent of the total number of teachers in 1938; the proportion had risen to 45.69 per cent in 1959, when it was projected that it would rise to 57.99 per cent in 1965, 59.84 per cent by 1975. (See Table II, 4.)[9] It is too early yet, of course, to check the final figure, but it has since been demonstrated that the projections of 1965 were underestimates, though not by very much (see Table II, 2.) This illustrates not only the difficulty of precise projections, but the clarity of the general trend at least. For reasons that have been considered, this process was slower in the USSR than in most other countries, but was soon discernable nonetheless. The whole trend of post-war development has been away from a teaching force consisting of a great mass of primary school teachers and a small elite of much more highly qualified secondary school teachers to something much more evenly balanced - in some cases, the positions have been reversed.

Since most teachers at this level came from the colleges or professional schools, somewhere between the secondary pedagogic schools and the universities (or equivalent), this development naturally necessitated some re-examination of the role and

standards of these institutions, their relationship with the primary training institutions on the one hand and the higher institutions which trained the upper secondary specialists on the other. As we shall see, this has proved to be a considerable problem in most of the countries concerned, not only, as one might expect, because of the practical difficulties of getting enough teachers for this stage or ensuring that they were well enough qualified, but also in trying to determine how far it is desirable or even feasible to bring these institutes nearer the level of those for the training of teachers for the higher classes of the school system.

(4) More teachers in certain special fields. Between them, the expansion of the secondary levels and the shift of emphasis to science and technology created a greater demand for teachers of the sciences and mathematics. This demand, fortunately, coincided roughly with the expansion of facilities for the training of specialists in those fields in higher education, but this was offset by two factors; firstly, there was an inevitable time-lag between the greater enrolments of students and their availability in the schools. Secondly (and more seriously in the long term) it also coincided with a growth in demand for specialists in these fields for industry and other areas of the national economy - a problem that seems to be built into every developed industrial society, as we in this country have cause to know all too well. In the Soviet Union and the Eastern European countries there have been similar difficulties in obtaining enough well-qualified science specialists, in the face

of competition from other professions, to keep up a sufficient standard in the teaching of these subjects in the schools - difficulties which seem to be getting worse rather than better. This, of course, is a problem affecting many sectors of the economy as well as the entire educational system, and we shall see later something of the strain put on the teacher training system in particular.

There are other areas where the changes of policy have created special demands. The introduction of polytechnical and work training in the schools meant that there was a need to produce people capable of teaching these subjects - again, often, in the face of competition from industry - raising problems of what kind of training they needed to have. Should they be people with industrial experience or craftsmen with additional teacher training, for example, or specialists specifically trained from the beginning with an eye to the educational side of these subjects? If the latter, at what level? Another area of increased demand was in the field of foreign languages. The Europeans have never quite adopted the rather odd view, widely current until recently in these islands, that the learning of languages was inherently outside the compass of all but a few, but the expansion of secondary education with a substantially uniform curriculum at the lower secondary level at least meant that many children who would not previously have studied foreign languages now found them at integral part of their course; this in turn increased the demand for linguistically trained teachers, though the supply problem has never been of the same dimensions as that for teachers of science and mathematics.

Finally, the growth of the pre-school system, coupled with the growing realisation that children in nurseries and kindergartens needed more than child-minders, has called for greater numbers to be trained in this field too: and since in most countries (with the possible exception of East Germany and Czechoslovakia) there has been little sign that the demand for places has reached its ceiling or anything like it, the prospects are that this will continue to be a further demand on the training system, as it has been since the end of the war.

(f) Political commitment.

> We have inherited the school system of a bourgeois society ... and ... teaching staff trained to be teachers in the schools of that society, which means teaching staff with their own concepts of the school and its function and internal life, and with a specific outlook on the world ... Among the teachers in prewar Yugoslavia there were a good number of people who fought both in the political and the educational sphere for the affirmation of progressive outlooks in their profession, but the fact remains that the majority of them were so formed as that they were unable to be the bearers of progressive educational thought and practice in our country immediately after Liberation.[10]

This is a relatively mild example of the line taken in Eastern Europe since the war, and in the USSR long before that. What emerges generally is that the political aims of the school systems are taken seriously by every communist régime, whatever its complexion, throughout the period under consideration. Teachers are expected to play their part in this, to act as what one more recent Soviet commentator[11] calls "workers of the

ideological front, bearers of party ideas", etc. Given this point of view, it follows that teachers not only have to be amenable to this role but well-primed to carry it out, hence the prominence in most countries of the various courses in political and socio-economic subjects, as we shall examine more fully in Chapter IV. Not only this, but the very job of teaching itself is given a political slant and a social frame of reference; it will be seen how this, too, is translated into practice in the curricula and syllabuses of the teacher training institutions.

(6) Flexibility

The communist systems are not, of course, alone in this, but the very prospects of further change open up further demands. Subject content alters, notably in the sciences; methodology changes as account has to be taken of such developments as language laboratories, programmed learning, and the like. This is common to all systems with the least pretensions to be dynamic rather than static; but the Soviet and East European systems have been committed all along to continuous change, and are also sensitive to changes in policy at party and government level; we have already seen something of the extent to which change is built into the system, and will see more in later chapters. For one reason or another, then, flexibility and adaptability become desirable teaching characteristics; even assuming the optimum degree of improvement in initial training, it can no longer be assumed that what one knows

or can do at the age of 20 or so is sufficient equipment for 45 years of teaching in a changing school situation.

But it is one thing to declare in favour of flexibility, another to secure it. It may be possible to implant it in initial training, though this is difficult in any circumstances, as most people who have had anything to do with teacher training in other countries could testify. Arguably, though, useful steps can be taken in this direction by having courses long enough to allow a suitable degree of maturity in the teacher before he is turned loose on the schools, by giving sufficient emphasis to educational theory, by teaching it in such a way that the student may get into the habit of asking himself not only what he should be doing and how, but why. But this takes time, and it hard to reconcile with the need to produce teachers in a hurry if the schools are to be staffed at all, and even harder to inject into courses where the students are so young, and the time-tables so heavy, that their tutors have reason to feel pleased if they acquire even the required knowledge within the required time. There have been some attempts along these lines, and we shall see later something of their outcome; but it is reasonable to mention at this stage that training for flexibility is difficult in theory, more so in practice, and in Eastern Europe and the USSR carries the further complication of the political sensitivity of many areas of study and professional work.

Flexibility, as a characteristic of a teacher, is in any case

difficult to define; but one way of avoiding ossification is to ensure that the teacher is put back into a training situation at reasonably frequent intervals, kept up to date with developments, and if possible involved in experiment and research. In other words, there is a role here for re-training, refresher and in-service courses, courses for raising teachers' qualifications, methods groups in schools, teachers' conferences, and so on. Much more has been done in this field, as will be examined in the next chapter.

In sum, then, the post-war changes in the school systems, involving as they have growth in the total number of pupils, a shift of balance in favour of secondary education, changes of emphasis towards technology and the sciences, and changes in political and social orientation, have created a need for more teachers in general, more secondary teachers in particular, more specialists in certain disciplines, a less fragmented teaching force, teachers committed politically to the aims of their society and the schools' role within it, teachers who can be more adaptable to change in their work throughout their teaching careers and, if possible, <u>better</u> teachers in skill, knowledge and motivation. Any one of these would have been big enough task; collectively, they constituted an extremely onerous demand on the teacher training systems, especially when the very fact of educational expansion and reconstruction in other fields was liable to create difficulties about priorities. The means by which these tasks have been attempted - the training institutions themselves - are examined in the next chapter.

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CHAPTER III

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Chapter III

1. Introduction

With all their differences, the teacher training systems of the USSR and Eastern Europe have displayed important similarities throughout the post-war period. This, in structure at any rate, cannot be totally attributed to Soviet influence, but rather to their common origin, the traditional continental pattern of clearly differentiated levels of institution for the training of teachers for the different levels of the school system. The rationale for this kind of structure (originally, at any rate) seems to have been the assumption that while lengthy courses in higher education, with marked or even exclusive emphasis on subject content, was appropriate for secondary teaching, something much less ambitious, but with more emphasis on teaching techniques, would do for teachers of the primary classes. The traditional systems, therefore, tended to rely on the universities to produce teacher for secondary schools, and on teacher training schools, parallel to the general secondary schools, to train teachers for the elementary classes; further, while the university students had of course gone through the academic secondary course, the teacher training schools normally recruited their students from pupils who had themselves completed terminal elementary classes without going through the secondary system at all. The two branches were thus quite distinct, both in function, approach and recruitment, rather like the situation in France before the 1959 reforms got under way. Teacher training institutes developed mainly to cater for the needs of the terminal elementary classes or "middle schools" (analogous

to the Mittelschulen still found in most German Länder) when it began to be felt that this twilight area required teachers trained in courses slightly more demanding than those for elementary teachers, but not much. Not surprisingly, these training colleges were much less prestigious than universities and equivalent institutions, and the type of school they served was regarded as of minor importance. In the USSR before the war, however, and in the Eastern European countries after it, the pattern began to change. As we have seen in the previous chapter, it was at this very point of the school system - the lower secondary or upper elementary school - that the greatest expansion took place. Further, it was this stage that, by virtue of comprehensive reorganisation, swallowed up the lower forms of the old academic secondary school. All this was bound to have a profound effect on the training colleges - their teachers, their courses, and their relationship with other institutions, especially the universities on whose preserves they were bound to encroach. In short, their whole place in the system changed. As we shall see, the response to this situation has differed from place to place, some countries preferring amalgamation, others proliferation, others again letting them overlap with other institutions. Broadly, the teacher training pattern through most of the post-war period has tended to a tripartite division of institutions, thus:

(1) Teacher Training Schools: schools of the upper secondary type, training teachers for pre-school institutions and elementary classes;

(2) Teacher Training Colleges: institutions of the post-secondary stage (but not quite of higher educational level, as a rule), training teachers for the middle secondary classes;

(3) Universities and other higher institutions, training teachers for the upper secondary classes, usually with some element of teacher training within the course.

In practice, however, it has rarely been as clear-cut as this. The teacher training schools, for instance, have often been paralleled by courses in general upper secondary schools and by courses in the training colleges. This latter overlap, in fact, has in many cases led to the complete or partial absorption of the functions of these schools by the colleges. Between the colleges and the universities, too, there has frequently been ambiguity of function, as the dividing-line between the middle and upper secondary stages becomes increasingly blurred. In some cases the distinction remains fairly clear-cut, as in Hungary or Yugoslavia, but in others, such as Poland or the USSR, both institutions train teachers for the entire secondary course, middle and upper alike - though there is still a tendency, as in systems nearer home, for the more highly specialised university graduates to concentrate in the upper reaches of the secondary school.

Other developments have tended to blur the distinctions still further. As we shall see, there has been a general trend towards "levelling-up" throughout the system, resulting in many

cases in the elevation of the training schools to college level (or their abolition, which is for all practical purposes the same thing), to the raising of the colleges to something nearer university level, or both. Other factors, not initially concerned with the structure of teacher training, nevertheless affect it. Teacher shortages, for instance, can result in the employment of lower-qualified teachers in the higher classes; this is particularly common in the rural areas of the USSR[1] and Yugoslavia.[2] Conversely, local surpluses (as in Belgrade or Bucharest) can push graduates of the universities or equivalent into the elementary classes.[3] Also, the trend towards teaching "secondary" subjects in primary classes - developments not unlike the teaching of French, science or mathematics in British primary schools - creates a need either for additional training for primary teachers or the employment of specialists originally trained for secondary work. In Rumania, experiments have been going on since 1965 on the teaching of children from form II (age 8) by subject specialists, and this practice seems, to judge from the way the results have been received, likely to increase.[4] In Poland, Hungary and Czechoslovakia special classes, notably in foreign languages, are on the increase in the primary school.[5] In the USSR, where whole areas are moving over to secondary teaching from the end of form III (aged 10), many schools are providing special classes at an even earlier stage.[6] One way and another, the gradual disappearance of the firm line between general subjects in primary schools and specialist teaching in secondary - a declared policy in some countries - is bound to

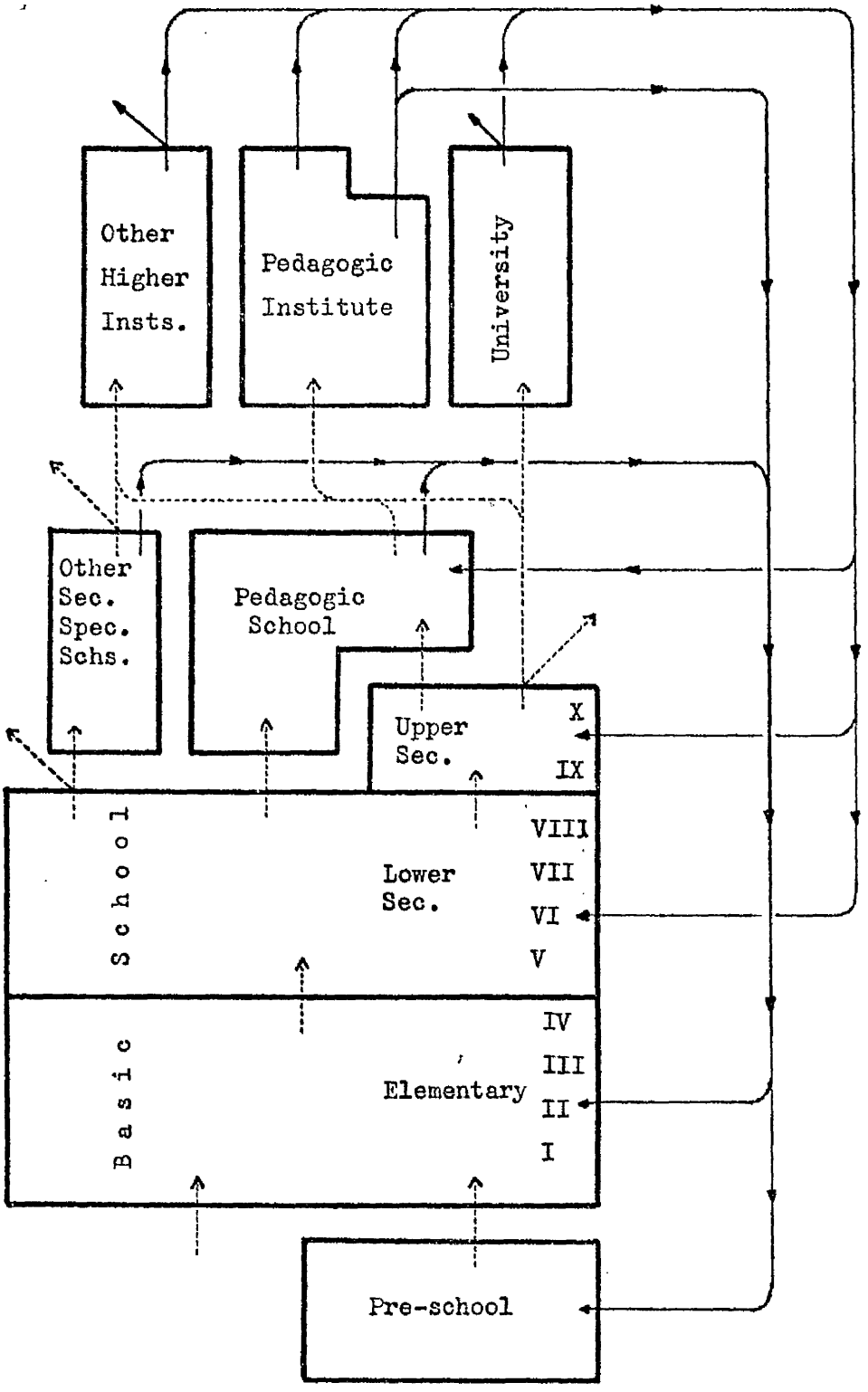
produce similar realignments in the teacher training structure. The clear-cut division of the old system is giving way to a much more complex and shifting spectrum.

Vague though the boundaries have become, the broad distinctions is still reasonably clear between the training of teachers for the elementary or upper secondary classes; it is the increased importance of the "middle ground" that has produced most of the demarcation problems. As yet, the ends of the spectrum are distinct, and it is perhaps significant that in most of the countries the word for "teacher" differs according to the level of class taught. Russian is the most comprehensive, using vospitatel' (upbringer) for a kindergarten teacher and uchitel' for the rest, but this is untypical. In Rumania, a kindergarten teacher is an educator, a basic school teacher an învățător, and a specialist in an upper secondary school a profesor. The only collective term that will accurately cover all teachers is the rather cumbersome cadre didactice. Yugoslavia draws a similar distinction between vaspitač, učitelj and profesor; nastavnik (instructor) is sometimes used specifically for the middle secondary stage, sometimes more widely. One Yugoslav educationist, describing the system of training in England and Wales, has to spend some space explaining to his readers the ambiguous and all-embracing nature of the English term.[7]

Methods of coping with this dichotomy, and the complications of demarcation, have varied, so that some systems have four types of institution, some three, some only two. The basic pattern, however

has been the two-way split with a third type in the middle; and even where this no longer exists, it is the basis on which developments of the last twenty years have taken place. We shall now consider some of the individual systems in more detail.

Fig. 2 : The U.S.S.R. - The Structure of Teacher Training



Broken arrows = into further courses
Unbroken arrows = into teaching
Oblique arrows = into other work

2. The U.S.S.R.

There are at present three principal types of training institution in the USSR - the pedagogical schools, pedagogical institutes, and the universities. Teachers can be trained in other ways, notably those working in the trade schools and some of the teachers of art, music, labour training and physical education in the general schools. The vast majority, however, come from one of these three, which are our principal concern here.

i. Pedagogic schools (pedagogicheskie uchilishcha)

These are schools of the secondary specialised type. Reorganised in 1954 from the old pedagogic tekhnikums, which gave four-year courses leading on from the 7-year school, they were apparently intended to become two-year institutions for those who had completed upper secondary education, until such time as their function could be taken over by the higher institutions.[8] It has not worked out quite as simply as this, however; pedagogic schools provide both 3-4 year courses for students coming from class VIII of the general school, and 2-3 year courses for those who have finished form X. Apart from evening or correspondence courses, the main emphasis is on the former type.

Pedagogic schools train three categories of teacher:

(1) Kindergarten teachers (vospitateli detskogo sada);

(2) Elementary school teachers (uchitelya nachal'nykh klassov

obshcheobrazovatel'noi shkoly), i. e., teachers of general subjects in forms I-IV;

(3) In some cases, teachers of physical education, drawing, technical drawing, music and singing and work training for the general schools (including secondary classes.)

In many of the major cities, the pedagogic schools are largely specialised in function and show an overwhelming bias towards the training of kindergarten teachers. In Leningrad,[9] for instance, there were seven such schools in 1966:

(1) No. 1 Pedagogic School "N. A. Nekrasov", dating, in one form or another, from 1923. It admits "persons who have incomplete secondary education" (i. e. from class VIII) and trains teachers for the elementary classes.

(2) No. 2 Pedagogic School also admits students from the basic school and trains primary teachers.

(3) No. 1 City Pre-School Pedagogic School (doshkol'noe pedagogicheskoe uchilishche) trains teachers for kindergartens. Students who have completed eight-year schooling are admitted to the full-time course for three years (4 years until 1960); the evening department offers three-year part-time courses to students who have completed the ten-year school. (This is something of a simplification of the situation until 1964, when students with eight-year schooling did a 4-year full-time or 5-year part-time course, while those with ten-year schooling did three years part-time.

(4) No. 2 City Pre-School Pedagogic School similarly offers three-

year full-time courses for students with eight-year schooling, three-year part-time courses (three evenings a week) for those with ten-year schooling. Evening courses are specifically for those already working in Kindergartens.

(5) Musical Pedagogic School trains teachers of music and singing for the general educational schools. The course is of four years' duration, and is open to students with eight years of general schooling and musical training equivalent to seven years in a music school.

(6) Art and Graphic Pedagogic School trains teachers of artistic and technical drawing (risovanie i cherchenie) for the general schools. The course lasts for four years and is open to those who have completed eight-year schooling .

(7) No. 3 City Pre-School Pedagogic School was opened in1966. As in the other two schools training teachers for kindergartens, students who have completed class VIII are admitted to a three-year course; those who have completed ten-year schooling, and are working already in kindergartens, are admitted to the three-year part-time course (three evenings a week). There is also a music department, which trains teachers of music and singing for kindergartens; this course is open to students with eight-year schooling and musical training equivalent to 6-7 years at music school, and lasts for four years.

The length of course for future primary teachers is usually given as four years, though Pedagogic School No. 2 cut it down to

three years in 1965.[10] There is some ambiguity about this at first sight, which applies to other towns as well. In Moscow, for instance, there are also seven such schools; one trains primary teachers only, one both primary and kindergarten teachers, while the others train only kindergarten teachers or teachers of music art, etc.[11] There, according to the head of the appropriate department in the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR, primary teachers study for four years, kindergarten teachers for "about three",[12] in both cases coming in from the eight-year school to full-time courses. Part-time courses are for those coming in from the ten-year school, and seem to be entirely limited now to people already working in kindergartens; the numbers involved are said to be tiny.[13]

The official curricula, promulgated in 1965, specify four years for primary teaching, three years and six months for kindergarten work.[14] Until 1964, the standard course was four years, but was cut to three or three and a half in the all-round reductions that took place in that year.[15] As so often happens, the changes were unevenly implemented and, as we shall consider presently, the future of the pedagogic schools was at that time in some doubt in any case. The plans of 1965 regularised both the length and content of courses, so that the pattern is now one of four or three and a half year courses, full time, for students from the eighth form. Other types of courses, part-time or for older students, are peripheral.

Entrance requirements[16] vary slightly according to type of course, but all require interviews and an entrance examination in Russian language and mathematics. In addition, music schools have tests in piano-playing and "musical and vocal talents", art schools require the submission of a portfolio of work as well as tests in drawing, life-drawing and composition, and pre-school pedagogic schools generally require tests of musical-auditory abilities, though of course of a less demanding kind than those administered by the music pedagogic schools.

Most cities, and many of the republics, resemble Leningrad and Moscow in the special bias of pedagogic schools towards pre-school, music or art training. Georgia, Latvia and Estonia, in fact, have only one pedagogical school each, and none at all for the training of primary teachers; these all come from higher institutions. But this degree of specialisation, and the dwindling of primary school training at this level, is not typical of the country as a whole. In 19 6, there were 367 pedagogic schools in the USSR; of these, 171 trained kindergarten teachers, 106 teachers of drawing, music, physical education, labour training, etc., but 280 trained primary school teachers. Table III, 1 shows the breakdown of pedagogic schools by course offered and by republics.

Table III 1 [17]

U.S.S.R.: Pedagogic Schools, 1966 - Schools and Courses, by Republics

Republic	Schools	Courses		
		Primary	Kind.	Other
RSFSR (-ASSRs)	204	149	86	52
ASSRs	44	34	23	16
Total RSFSR	248	183	109	68
Ukraine	39	32	24	23
Byelorussia	9	8	3	3
Uzbekistan	17	11	11	5
Kazakhstan	14	14	3	-
Georgia	1	-	1	-
Azerbaidzhan	9	8	1	-
Lithuania	3	3	3	-
Moldavia	5	4	2	2
Latvia	1	-	1	-
Kirgizia	3	3	2	-
Tadzhikistan	8	7	1	-
Armenia	3	3	3	2
Turkmenia	4	4	4	-
Estonia	1	-	1	1
(external - all-Union)	2	-	2	-
Total U.S.S.R.	367	280	171	106

"Other" includes courses in art, technical drawing, music, singing, choral singing, labour training, physical education. Teachers in these fields sometimes come from other types of secondary specialised school; these have not been included in the totals.

The role of the pedagogic schools has been subject to considerable change in the last decade or more; this will be examined more fully later. It is useful to note, however, that over three quarters of the teachers in primary classes have pedagogical school training, [18] and that although the number of

teachers coming out of such schools is less than half the output of the various higher institutions (60,000 as against 142,000 in 1966),[19] it is still considerable. As both the figures and recent pronouncements[20] make clear, the pedagogic schools are still an important part of the Soviet teacher training system.

ii. Pedagogic Institutes (pedagogicheskie instituty, also frequently referred to by the contractions pedinstituty, pedvuzy).

Pedagogic institutes are higher educational institutions, officially of university standard, admitting students who have completed the full secondary course and passed the entrance examinations. At present, they train two main types of teacher:
(1) Teachers of general subjects for the elementary classes, thus overlapping with the function of the pedagogic schools;
(2) Subject specialist teachers for secondary classes (V-X) of the general schools. The length of course depends on the type and combination of subjects studdied, but usually four years are required for one specialty, five years for two. There is an increasing tendency for students to choose the longer double course, since it gives them a better qualification; it is also preferred, it is said, by the schools, especially those in rural areas, many of which are too small to give single-subject specialists a full timetable.[21]
In some institutes (e.g. the Lenin State Pedagogic Institute in Moscow,[22] or the Pedagogic Institute of Foreign Language in Minsk)[23] single subject four-year courses are being discontinued.

The range of specialisms offered, single or double, is extremely wide on a national scale. In 1965, for instance, the following single-subject groups were available:[25]

(1) Pre-School pedagogy and psychology (for lecturers in pedagogic schools);

(2) Pedagogy and methods of elementary teaching (for teachers of classes I-IV);

(3) Russian language and literature;

(4) Russian language and literature for non-Russian schools;

(5) Languages and literatures of non-Russian Soviet peoples; those listed are: Ukrainian, Moldavian, Azerbaidzhani, Georgian, Lithuanian, Latvian, Estonian, Uzbek, Kazakh, Turkmen, Tadzhik, Kara-Kalpal, Ossetian, Polish (this last being for Polish minority schools in Byelorussia and the Ukraine);

(6) Foreign languages: English, French, German, Spanish, Italian;

(7) Sciences: mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural science, geography;

(8) History, and history with social study;

(9) General technical disciplines and labour training;

(10) Technical and artistic drawing (cherchenie i risovanie);

(11) Music and singing;

(12) Physical education;

(13) Defectology (i. e. training of teachers for schools for handicapped children);

(14) Librarianship and bibliography.

Not only can most of these be taken in combination, but there are further specialisms available only as part of groups of two or more subjects. The following combinations (main subject first) were offered in 1965:

(1) Russian language and literature with: Byelorussian, Adigei, Buryat, Mari, Mordovian, Komi, Ossetian, Chechen or Chuvash language and literature; with a foreign language; or with a foreign language and physical education or music.

(2) Abkhazian literature and language with a foreign language.

(3) Tatar language and literature with history.

(4) English language with: French, German, Spanish, Chinese or other (unspecified) language; with Russian language and literature; or with Uzbek language and literature.

(5) German language with: English, French or other; with Russian or Uzbek language and literature.

(6) French language with: German, English, Spanish or other; with Russian or Uzbek language and literature; or with physical education.

(7) Spanish language with German or other language; with Russian or Uzbek language and literature.

(8) History with: social study and pioneer work; with physical education; or in a foreign language.

(9) Geography with: biology; physical education; or in a foreign language.

(10) Biology with: chemistry; fundamentals of agricultural production; or in a foreign language.

(11) Natural science with chemistry.

(12) Chemistry in a foreign language.

(13) Physics with: general technical disciplines; electrotechnics; electrotechnics and mechanics; fundamentals of production; technical mechanics; or in a foreign language.

(14) Mathematics with: physics; technical drawing; computer programming; or in a foreign language.

(15) Technical and artistic drawing with labour training.

(16) General technical disciplines with labour training.

(17) Labour training with physics.

(18) Pedagogy and methods of elementary teaching with singing.

Some of these offerings are obvious rarities, arising from local needs, such as the combinations of Russian and Ossetian, Komi and the like. Others are rare for other reasons, such as staffing or demand; English with Chinese is available only in Chita, and the rather eccentric combination of French and physical education only at Yaroslavl. For an example of more usual offerings, albeit on a wider scale than in most single institutions, we can look at the faculties, and the courses offered in them, of the Herzen Pedagogic Institute in Leningrad.[25]

The Herzen Institute (in full, the Leningrad State Pedagogic Institute named after A. I. Herzen - Leningradskii gosudarstvennyi pedagogicheskii institut imeni A. I. Gertsena)

is one of the oldest of its kind in the whole country, founded in 1918; with a staff of over 750, 63 chairs (kafedry, or departments), and an enrolment of some ten thousand students, it is also one of the largest. The faculties, with the full-time courses available in 1966, are as follows:

(1) Faculty of Russian literature and language: four years for the single course.

(2) Faculty of History: four years.

(3) Faculty of Foreign Languages: four years for English, five for German, French or Spanish.

(4) Faculty of Mathematics: four years.

(5) Faculty of Physics: four years.

(6) Faculty of Natural Science: five years for biology and chemistry.

(7) Faculty of Geography: five years for geography and biology.

(8) Faculty of Defectology: four-year courses for teachers in various types of special schools for handicapped children.

(9) Faculty of Pedagogy: there are two departments, each offering a four-year course. The elementary school department trains teachers for classes I-IV, and the pre-school department trains methods tutors and lecturers in pedagogy and psychology for pedagogic schools.

(10) Faculty of Chemistry: four years.

(11) Faculty of Graphic Art: five-year courses for teachers of artistic and technical drawing and labour training.

(12) Faculty of Physical Education: four years.

In the faculties of mathematics, physics, geography and chemistry there are special courses of five years' duration leading to qualifications to teach those subjects in English, French, or German. There is also a Northern Department which trains elementary school teachers from various small minority groups in the far North.

Part-time courses are less extensive. In the evening department, only the faculties of mathematics, pedagogy, and graphic art are represented, though the faculties of history, Russian language and literature, geography, natural science, mathematics, pedagogy, defectology, graphic art and physical education all provide correspondence courses through the external department. As in other pedagogic institutes (unlike training colleges in this country) the first qualification or diploma (diplom) is equivalent to a university degree; further, post-graduate students (aspiranty) work for higher degrees on the same basis as in the universities.

There are 190 pedagogic institutes in the USSR, varying greatly in the range of courses available.[26] There are also eleven foreign language pedagogic institutes, such as the well-known centres at Moscow, Gorki and Minsk, which specialise in the training of language teachers, interpreters and translators; where these exist, as a rule, the general pedagogic institutes (such as the Lenin Institute in Moscow or the Gorki Institute in

Minsk) are correspondingly narrower in range, lacking the usual faculties of foreign languages; these do have language departments, but only to provide the language courses which form part of all higher institute curricula.

Pedagogic faculties for the training of primary teachers are the exception rather than the rule - only 16 in the whole of the RSFSR at the present time. Further, they tend to be small; in the Lenin Institute in Moscow, there are only 600 students in the pedagogic faculty out of more than 10,000 students.[27] In Byelorussia,[28] where all the pedagogic institutes train primary school teachers, students in these faculties still make up only about five per cent of the total. Numbers are growing, but at a very slow rate. Over the country as a whole, there seems to be considerable uncertainty about the role of the pedagogic institutes in the training of primary school teachers, for the present at any rate.

In general, however, there can be no doubt about the central importance of the pedagogic institutes in the teacher training system. There were 797,000 students enrolled in them in 1965-1966, compared with 279,000 in the universities and 299,000 in the pedagogic schools.[29] Already, they supply by far the bulk of secondary school teachers, and in some places the primary school teachers as well.[30] Both the statements of officials in the ministries and the trend of the figures clearly indicate an even more dominant role in the future in the training

of teachers for all levels of the general school.

iii. Universities

As in some other countries, it is possible for university graduates to go directly into teaching without any post-graduate training. Indeed, under the system whereby graduates (with the exception of certain exempt categories) may be directed to any job for three years, they may have to. The numbers involved vary considerably from place to place; just over half in Kiev,[31] about 60 per cent in Minsk,[32] nearly three quarters in Tbilisi,[31] etc. The national average is between 60 and 70 per cent.[31] This falls short of the figure of 80 per cent expected by the authorities,[33] but is still high enough to justify the classification of the universities as a major part of the system of training teachers for the general schools. In the USSR, as elsewhere, this gives rise to many difficulties and ambiguities, which will be examined in more detail later. Some heads of universities - and many students - take the view that preparation for school teaching is not really the job of the university, a view rebutted from time to time in the official press.[34] But whatever ambiguities arise from the co-existence of the universities and pedagogic institutes, the fact remains that the majority of the students do go into teaching - an overwhelming majority, if one discounts those whose special subjects commit them to other jobs. In any event, the authorities regard the bulk of the University students as potential teachers, and see to it that they do not emerge as "untrained

graduates" by including in virtually all university courses a teacher training element - pedagogy, psychology, teaching methods and teaching practice.[35]

This training element (which will be examined more fully later) plays a less important part in the curriculum than do such courses in the pedagogic institutes. University courses concentrate much more heavily on the special subject (one, not two), and take five years to do it. Comparisons are difficult, but it is often said that university-trained teachers are a year or more ahead of their institute-trained colleagues as far as mastery of subject-matter is concerned, while teachers from the institutes, by virtue of their more extensive practical training, are more competent teachers, at least at the outset of their careers.[36]

Officially, the qualifications are identical; teachers of both types are simply described as "having higher education", are employed at the same level and are paid on the same salary scale.[37] How far this corresponds with actual standards is a matter of some controversy, but for official purposes the universities are parallel to the institutes in the training of secondary teachers. They do not, however, train elementary school teachers - this remains the preserve of the institutes and the pedagogic schools.

iv. <u>Other methods of training and re-training</u>

In addition to the three main types of institution described above, there are a few others which provide teachers for the general educational system.

(1) at secondary specialised level, art, music and physical education schools turn out teachers as well as practitioners.[38] Similarly, a few graduates of industrial or agricultural tekhnikumy may be employed as instructors of industrial or agricultural production and similar subjects. Some (along with people who have completed general secondary schooling but nothing else) are still employed as teachers of general subjects. There are not many of these "dilutees" - 7.9 per cent of teachers of classes I-IV 5.9 per cent of classes V-VIII, and 1.3 of teachers in classes IX-XI. But nearly a third of the teachers of drawing, technical drawing, music, singing, physical education and labour training have been trained in general secondary schools or in secondary specialised schools other than pedagogic schools. This group amounted to 32.3 per cent in 1965, as against 30.9 per cent of teachers of those subjects who were trained in peduchilishcha.[39]

Secondary schools of this type, then, account for the largest single group of teachers of art, music, and similar subjects. It is worth noting, perhaps, that these are the subjects most liable to be taught by under-qualified people. Dilution is found to some degree throughout the school system, but at least the numbers lacking even complete secondary education are tiny - 1.6 per cent in 1965-1966. Such teachers made up 0.4 per cent

of the general teaching staff in classes I-IV, 0.1 per cent in the higher classes; but of the total number of teachers of art, music, physical education and labour, no less than 13.1 per cent lacked even complete secondary schooling.[40]

(2) At the higher education level, a number of institutes other than universities or pedagogic institutes do produce some teachers; again, these are mainly concerned with art, music, physical education and technical subjects. Figures are not given separately (those with any kind of higher qualification usually being lumped together for statistical purposes) but the numbers appear to be small - particularly since many of these disciplines are catered for at the pedagogic institutes as well.

Further and In-Service Training

Apart from the various institutions concerned with the initial training of the teaching force, there are several means whereby teachers may keep up to date and improve their level of qualification. Of these, the most significant are the Improvement Institutes, of which there are over 100 in the country. They carry on a broad range of activities, in three principal areas: (1) systematic refresher courses; (2) help and advice to teachers in their daily work; (3) study dissemination of advances in teaching method. The general idea is to provide an opportunity for exchange of experience, to correlate research and practice, and to introduce new developments quickly into the classroom. This is done

chiefly through annual courses of socio-political, pedagogical and specialist lectures on the content and method of teaching particular subjects; these courses normally run from mid-September till the end of May, generally without interruption of school work. It is quite normal, however, as is done in Moscow, for the City Department of Education to release teachers for such courses for one day a week for one academic year in every five.

In addition to these annual courses, there are also various short-term courses, seminars and demonstration lessons, together with occasional lectures (single or in short series) on current problems. Information and library services are also operated, and conferences, meetings and exhibitions are organised from time to time. In a way and another, the Institutes seek to ensure that teacher training is a continuous process, not some - thing that ends when the teacher leaves formal training and takes up work in the school.

Improvement Institutes, as one might expect, vary considerably in size and extent (as well as in efficiency and effectiveness). The Moscow City Institute, [41] set up by the City Soviet in 1938, is the best-known and most comprehensive (running to the publication of a journal and numerous booklets and pamphlets on methodology), and has played the part of model and pace-setter for similar Institutes throughout the country. Directly responsible to the City Soviet, it also maintains links

with the 17 District Education Departments, and through them with the schools, Pioneer houses and other educational establishments. There are also 19 specialist sections (kabinety), which work in direct contact with the appropriate schools or other bodies. The kabinety of the Moscow Institute are as follows:

(1) Study and dissemination of progressive experience.

This section runs the permanent exhibition and the editorial office of the Institute's journal.

(2) Elementary education (also responsible for work-training in classes I-IV, and for running a workshop for making visual aids.)

(3) Russian language and literature.

(4) Mathematics.

(5) History.

(6) Geography.

(7) Biology.

(8) Physics, with two laboratories, one electrical, the other for demonstration lessons.

(9) Chemistry, with a laboratory.

(10) Children's homes, concerned with the upbringing of orphans.

(11) Extra-scholastic education, concerned with circles, clubs, Pioneer work, etc.

(12) Foreign languages.

(13) Physical education.

(14) Artistic and technical drawing.

(15) Singing and music.

(16) Polytechnical education, with a machine shop, carpentry workshop, domestic science rooms, etc.

(17) School films, also responsible for the film library.

(18) Pedagogy.

(19) Library and Reading Room.

Although available to any teachers in the city (and a few from outside), the institute can obviously not cope with anything like the entire number, even if they were so inclined. Still, it was reported in 1960 that some 5,000 teachers were helped annually out of a total teacher population of 30,000, which represents a considerable service over the years to the city's schools. But activities of this type are not confined to large scale institutions like the one in Moscow; in many of the cities there are "methodological cabinets" in some or all of the administrative districts, which perform much the same functions more informally and on a smaller scale. Finally, there is a great variety of lectures, seminars, meetings and discussion groups at many levels, run by city and region education departments, the teachers' union, the pedagogy departments of pedagogic institutes and universities, and at the school level by the pedagogical councils (pedagogicheskie soviety) of the schools, consisting of the staff, directors, and representatives of parents' and party organisations. Potentially at least, the machinery exists to ensure that teachers are constantly in a training

situation, and can be kept up to date with current developments in subject content and methods - most important in view of the constant changes over the last few years. That it does not always work out like this, especially in the rural areas, is one of the commonest complaints in the educational press.

v. The Administration of Teacher Training.

Essentially simple though it seems at first glance, with its high degree of centralisation, the administration of education in general, and of teacher training in particular, is extremely complex. In essence, the basic pattern is straightforward enough. At all-Union level, the work of the higher institutions and secondary specialised schools comes under the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of the USSR (Ministerstvo vysshego i srednego spetsial'nogo obrazovaniya SSSR), while the general schools (since 1966)[42] come under the supervision of the Ministry of Education of the USSR (Ministerstvo prosveshcheniya SSSR). (The vocational-technical schools come under the control of the separate body, a State Committee of the Council of Ministers, but that need not detain us here.) These two bodies are, in turn, duplicated at the level of the Union Republics, the higher ministries being directly in control of the VUZy, the school ministries working through provincial, regional and city departments right down to the schools themselves.

In practice, it is not as simple as that. At the level of higher and secondary specialised education, no less than 58 ministries and other governmental agencies are involved, 13 at all-Union and 45 at Republic level.[43] Nor are they all primarily concerned with education; many other bodies have an interest in the training of personnel in their own fields, and therefore run the appropriate institutions, under the general umbrella of the Ministry of Higher Education. At Union level, there are no less than 11 of them, including the Ministries of Civil Aviation, the Merchant Navy, Communications, Culture, Agriculture, the Writers' Union, and the USSR State Production Committee for Fisheries. At Republic level, 28 bodies other than Ministries of Education or Higher Education are involved, including sovnarkhozy, technical Ministries, sports unions, Ministries of Culture and, prominently, Ministries of Health. This has little bearing, so far, on teacher training, but it does underline the complexity of the organisation, and helps to explain how the lines of communication can become tangled even when there is overriding Party control. (Also, as has already been noted, a few people do filter from these institutions, notably those run by Ministries of Culture, into the teaching force.

But the division between Ministries of Education and of Higher Education, though usual, is not universal. The RSFSR, the Ukraine, Kazakhstan and Uzbekistan do have Ministries of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education on all-Union pattern; Byelorussia has one that takes care of vocational training as well.

Committees or State Committees (goskomitety), variously named, fill much the same role in Azerbaidzhan, Armenia, Lithuania, Estonia and Georgia. Kirgizia, Moldavia, Tadzhikistan and Turkmenia have Ministries of Public Education (Ministerstva narodnogo obrazovaniya), while Latvia has a Ministry of Education; these subsume the fields of general and higher education under single bodies. To complicate things further, the ASSRs (Autonomous Republics) that exist within the RSFSR and one or two other republics have their own Ministries of Education, though not of Higher Education.

The way in which the control of teacher training is parcelled out among all these bodies varies from place to place: (1) Universities. Where there are separate Ministries or State Committees of Higher Education, these are responsible. Where there are not (Moldavia, Latvia, Tadzhikistan), Kirgizia, Turkmenia) the Ministries of Education are responsible.

(2) Pedagogic institutes and pedagogic schools. Where there are undifferentiated Ministries of Education, these, once again, are responsible; where there are separate Ministries (or State Committees) of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education, these are responsible. There are two major exceptions to this: in the RSFSR and the Ukraine, it is the Ministry of Education, not Higher Education, that is responsible for these institutions. In the ASSRs, the RSFSR Ministry of Education, not the local ones, is responsible. There is even an exception to the exception: one

pedvuz, the Moscow Pedagogic Institute of Foreign Languages, is controlled by the RSFSR Ministry of Higher Education.

In Uzbekistan, the control of pedagogic schools is split: the Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education runs the schools for the training of primary teachers, while those for the training of kindergarten teachers come under the Ministry of Education. Another exception is in Turkmenia, where one pedagogic school (Ashkhabad) is run by the Ministry of Public Economy; and the others come under the Ministry of Public Education. The control of teacher training institutions at Republic level, with the number of pedagogic institutions and schools involved, may be summarised thus:

Table III, 2.

U.S.S.R. Administration of Teacher Training by republics

Republic	Ministry	Number of: pedvuzy	Peduch.
RSFSR:	**Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of the RSFSR**	1	
	Ministry of Education of the RSFSR	105	248
Ukraine	Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of the Ukrainian SSR	(Universities)	
	Ministry of Education of the Ukrainian SSR	32	39
Byelorussia	Ministry of Higher, Secondary Specialised & Vocational Education of the BSSR	8	9
Kazakhstan	Ministry of Higher and Secondary Specialised Educ. of the Kazakh SSR	15	14
Uzbekistan	Ministry of Higher and Sec. Spec. Education of the Uzbek SSR	11	10
	Ministry of Education of the Uzbek SSR		4
Azerbaidshan	Committee for Higher and Sec. Specialised Ed. of the Azerbaidshan SSR	3	9
Armenia	Committee of the Council of Ministers of the Armenian SSR for Higher and Secondary Specialised Education	3	3
Lithuania	State Committee for Higher and Secondary Specialised Education of the Council of Ministers of the Lithuanian SSR	2	3
Estonia	State Committee of the Estonian SSR for Higher and Secondary Specialised Education	1	1
Georgia	State Committee for Higher and Sec. Spec. Education of the Georgian SSR	8	1

Republic	Ministry	Number of:	
		podvuzy	Poduch.
Moldavia	Ministry of Public Education of the Moldavian SSR	2	5
Latvia	Ministry of Education of the Latvian SSR	2	1
Tadzhikistan	Ministry of Education of the Tadzhik SSR	3	6
Kirgizia	Ministry of Education of the Kirgiz SSR	3	3
Turkmenia	Ministry of Public Education of the Turkmen SSR	1	4

This multiplicity of responsible organs, awkward though it may be at times for administration and planning, has relatively little effect on basic policy, or on detailed policy either for that matter. Fundamental decisions are taken, not at institute or even republic ministerial level, but by the Council of Ministers of the USSR and the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. These bodies, of course, overlap extensively, and each has special "interest areas" for education - the two all-Union ministries of Education and Higher Education on the one hand, and the Department of Schools, Higher Education and Science (Otdel shkoly, vuzov i nauki)[45] on the other, and their major decisions are issued jointly.[46] In so far as their functions can be disentangled, the main centres of power undoubtedly lie somewhere in the higher organs of the Central Committee of the CPSU. Broad guidelines having been laid down at this level, the all-Union Ministries elaborate them in detail, pass them on in turn to the Republic Ministries,

and so on down the line. Decisions also go through other channels in the shape of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, the Councils of Ministers and Supreme Soviets of the Union Republics, and so on, but this is for the most part formal. Even in such matters as curriculum (and to a lesser extent on methods) the plans are virtually complete even by the time they reach the level of Republic Ministries, and are accompanied by the attentions of inspectors to make sure they are carried out. It is true that there is more room for manoeuvre than there used to be; certain course area, for instance, are left open for Republic Ministries or even the institutions themselves to determine;[47] certain of the more distinguished institutions (like the Herzen Institute in leningrad or the Lenin Institute in Moscow) seem to experience little difficulty in setting aside the centrally prescribed curricula in favour of their own (individual'nye uchebnye plany), though they have to get permission to do so.[48] There have been many reports recently of various institutes taking it upon themselves to set up programmed learning units, institute departments for refresher courses, or even put aside the prescribed syllabus of lectures and seminars in favour of something much more flexible, such as a series of discussion groups.[49] These, however, are on the edge of the system. The basic framework remains centrally determined, the academic councils of the institutes keep a very close eye on the requirements of central policy, while the close involvement of the Communist Party organs at every level ensures that no deviation goes too far. Cumbersome though the machinery

is, the existence of the parallel chains of command (government and Party), with cross-linking at every point, favours a unified system pulling in the same direction.

But once again it is not quite as simple as that. Even such a single-minded apparatus is difficult to keep running effectively over such a vast country, and divergences quite often appear that are not approved by the central authorities. Policy has to be adapted to local realities, hence (say) variations in course offerings, or in the relative strength of pedagogic schools and institutes in training primary school teachers. There appears also to be a growing awareness at the centre that in teacher training, as in many other things, certain decisions have to be left to the people nearer to the actual problems. Co-ordination is never as easy as it sounds; significantly, it was the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences, which is supposed to provide general leadership and co-ordination of educational effort at all levels, that came in for some of the severest criticisms in 1965 and 1966.[50] In a system so complex and so vast, it is proving difficult to reconcile the demands for more effective co-ordination and the need for greater flexibility.

vi. Summary of Developments, 1945-1966.

In the immediate post-war period, teachers for pre-school institutions and elementary classes were, as we have seen, trained in the four-year pedagogic tekhnikums for graduates

of the seven-year schools. Training for the two levels of secondary education was, however, distinct. Teachers' Institutes (uchitel'skie instituty) provided two-year courses for students who had completed the ten-year school, giving qualifications to teach in classes V-VII. Pedagogic Institutes, at that time, trained subject specialists for classes VIII-X, with a four-year course. The universities, though many graduates did go into teaching, did not as a rule provide specific teacher training at all.[51]

In 1952-1953, the secondary training structure was re-organised, with a view to expanding the pedagogic institutes to take over all training of secondary teachers, thus displacing the two-year teachers' institutes; whereas there had been 196 of these latter establishments in 1946, there were only two left (one in Riga and one in Central Asia)[52] by the middle 1950s, and they soon disappeared altogether (1958). In the same period, the number of pedagogic institutes grew from 120 to 204, partly through the opening of new institutes or promotion of existing two-year ones.[53]

In 1955-1956, further changes were put in motion, helped by the fact that there was at that time less pressure on the supply of teachers, owing to the effects of the lower post-war birth-rate (the teacher-pupil ratio was 1:17).[54] This provided an opportunity to expand the training programmes for upper secondary teachers, and to retrain large numbers of those already in service. By this time, 2/3 of all teachers in classes VIII-X had full higher qualifications. University faculties of philology, history, biology and

geography were required to direct 80 per cent of their graduates into teaching, faculties of physics, mathematics and chemistry were expected to do the same with 60 per cent of theirs and courses in pedagogy, psychology, teaching method and teaching practice were introduced. There were also moves to lengthen the courses in the pedagogic institutes; in 1956 they went up from four to five years, and students had to profess two special subjects instead of one. New courses were also brought in, such as "fundamentals of production" to go with physics, "fundamentals of Agriculture" with chemistry and biology. As now, the actual offerings varied considerably from place to place, and the equation of one specialism to a four-year course, two to a five-year course, was not absolute. The main areas, however, were:

1955 and before (4 years):

(1) Mathematics
(2) Mathematics and physics
(3) Physics and astronomy
(4) Biology and chemistry
(5) Geography
(6) Foreign language (English, French or German)
(7) Russian language and literature
(8) History

1956 and after (5 years):

(1) Mathematics and technical training
(2) Mathematics and physics
(3) Physics and fundamentals of production
(4) Biology, chemistry and fundamentals of agriculture
(5) Geography and biology
(6) Two foreign languages
(7) Russian language and literature and one foreign language
(8) Russian language, literature and history.

This, of course, made it easier to staff small rural schools, and by the same token made it easier to direct teachers. On the other hand, the increase in the length of time was more than absorbed by the additional subject-matter. The number of teaching-hours exceeded that of many university courses (as did the length of reading lists), and complaints about overloading became ever more insistent by the beginning of the 1960s.[55] One solution widely canvassed was the pedagogic institutes should retain the five-year course but concentrate on one special subject with a couple of subsidiaries, thus taking off some of the pressure but retaining, even extending, the advantages of multiple qualification. In the event, the system was put into reverse, partly because of rising costs, partly because it was becoming apparent that the relatively plentiful supply of teachers was not going to last, and that the reductions of enrolments in the pedvuzy had been misguided. In 1963, the pedagogic institutes reverted to four-year courses for one specialism, with some exceptions. This, as we have seen, is still the position, though the growing practice of combining specialisms in five-year courses has brought the situation closer to that of 1956 once again.

Though mainly concerned with polytechnical education and production training, the "law on the strengthening of the links of the school with life and further developing the system of public education in the USSR" (the "Khrushchov reforms" of 1958) touched on most aspects of the educational system. On

teacher training, it had this to say:

> It is recognised to be necessary to improve the training of teachers in pedagogic institutes and in the universities; to expand the training of teachers for elementary schools, with a view to staffing all schools, eventually, with teachers who have had a higher education; .... to raise the scientific and theoretical standard of teaching in the pedagogic institutes; and to give more importance to industrial and teaching practice in the training of teachers. [56]

This is not very specific; calls for improvement are more or less routine, and the emphasis on industrial practice was in conformity with the general tenor of the law. (More courses in technical and production practice were in fact introduced.)[57] But the absence of any reference to the pedagogic schools was eloquent. As fuller commentaries,[58] then and later, made clear, they were to be closed down gradually and replaced by the four-year elementary courses in the pedagogic institutes. The pedagogic institutes, having absorbed the teachers' institutes, were to swallow the pedagogic schools (widely held to be inadequate) as well. For a time, enrolment figures reflected this policy: 59,000 entered pedagogic schools in 1958, as against 106,000 in 1950.[59]

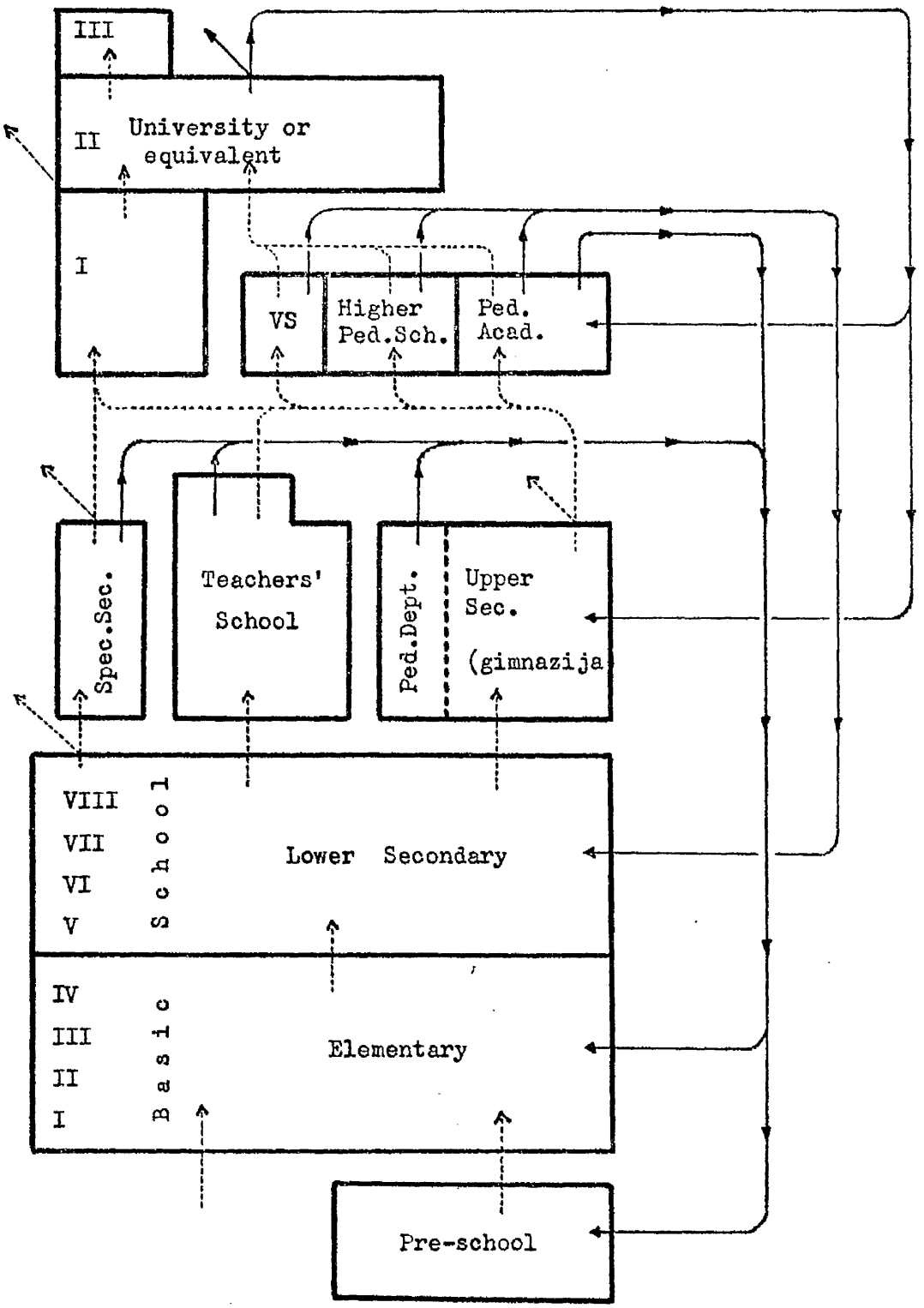
But this policy was soon halted, then partly reversed. By 1960, the number of entrants to the pedagogic schools had risen again to 72,000, and by 1965 was approaching the old level, with 102,000.[60] Although the contribution of such schools to the teaching force is proportionately much less significant than it was,

this still represents a partial reversal of policy; some pedagogic schools that were closed in the 1950s have since been reopened. Some cities, and one or two republics, have been able to switch over, wholly or very nearly so, to pedagogic institutes for the training of primary teachers. But, as we have seen, this is not true of the country as a whole.[62] With less than 7 per cent of the elementary teachers holding higher educational qualifications in 1965,[63] it is reasonable to suppose that pedagogic schools will be there for some time. In so far as they will commit themselves, most senior officials and educationalists are now (1968) talking in terms of ten years or so before these schools can be dispensed with.[64] Even then, it is likely that they will still be needed for the training of kindergarten teachers.

Significantly, mention of the pedagogic schools has been creeping back into official and semi-official pronouncements. An editorial in Uchitel'skaya gazeta in 1967 envisaged a definite role for them for some time to come:

> The near future must be marked by a large-scale success on the part of the padagogic schools in training a numerous army of qualified teachers for the primary schools. Without this, it is unthinkable that the great tasks facing the country and the people can be achieved in time.[65]

Fig. 3 : YUGOSLAVIA - The Structure of Teacher Training



VS = Other više škole
Broken arrows = into further courses
Unbroken arrows = into teaching
Oblique arrows = into other work

3. Yugoslavia.

The structure of teacher training in Yugoslavia is more complicated than anywhere in Eastern Europe, largely because of the substantial degree of decentralisation of powers to the Socialist Republics that constitute the SFRJ. This gives rise, not only to a greater multiplicity of training institutions, but to considerable variety from place to place, and to great unevenness in the rate of change.

The pre-war system of teacher training was along the classic lines of a clear division of function between teachers' schools for the training of elementary teachers, universities or the equivalent for the secondary schools. Training colleges of a standard somewhere between the two were of slight importance in pre-war Yugoslavia; there were only two of them, with 259 students in 1938.[66] The system began to change, rather fitfully, in 1948, when a conference on teachers' schools in Belgrade adumbrated a general raising of teachers' qualifications to meet the needs of the expanding basic school, with its absorbtion (on a much greater scale than before) of the middle secondary stage.[67] The training colleges (higher pedagogic schools), the intermediate institution between the two traditional types, grew fast; by 1955-1956 there were 13, with nearly 7,000 students.[68] Further, the report of the "Commission on the Training of Teachers for the Compulsory School" brought forward in 1955 the idea of upgrading the teachers' schools by introducing a new type of

institution, the pedagogic academy, which would provide the organisational framework for the conversion of these schools into higher institutions.[69] With uneven changes from one area to another, the proliferation of training establishments had reached its maximum extent by the 1960s. The main types were:

(1) Teachers' schools (with courses at upper secondary level) for kindergarten and elementary teachers;

(2) Higher pedagogic schools (two-year training colleges) for subject specialists for middle secondary classes;

(3) Pedagogic academies providing both types of course;

(4) Higher educational institutions (universities and equivalent) providing, though not necessarily training, teachers for the upper secondary stage.

(1) Teachers' training schools are of two main types. The kindergarten teachers' school (škola za vaspitače) is a comparative rarity, at least as a separate entity. Out of a total of 71 teacher training schools in 1965, only 7 were kindergarten schools, with an enrolment of just over 2,000 students, all girls. Three of these were in Serbia, two in Slovenia, two in Croatia; Bosnia-Herzegovina, Montenegro and Macedonia had none at all.[70] Yugoslavia, of course, with a pre-school system much less developed than other East European countries, has less need for such personnel than most.[71] Even so, the figures are rather misleading; in the republics that lack schools of this type, kindergarten vaspitače are trained in other institutions, notably in the pre-school departments of teachers' schools. Courses are of

four years' duration (sometimes five) and are open to students who have successfully completed the basic school (class VIII.) As in the other upper secondary schools, entrance examinations are used if the demand for places exceeds the supply.

The teachers' school (učiteljska škola) has until recently been the main source of elementary school teachers in the country. Although they had been closed or transformed in most republics, there were still 37 of them in 1965-1966, with nearly 26,000 students.[72] As recently as 1965, the vast majority of teachers in the primary classes (I-IV) had this kind of qualification - 42,000 out of 44,000.[73]

The length of course varies. In 1963, when the number of schools had begun to decline (v. table III 3), 43 offered five-year courses, 22 four-year courses. Most republics were consistent; it was five years in Slovenia and Croatia, four in Bosnia-Herzegovina and Macedonia. In Serbia, most of the courses were of five years' duration, but in the Serbian province of Kosovo and Metohija (Kosmet, polulated mainly by Albanians) the course was one of four years.[74]

Students are admitted who have completed the basic school and taken an entrance examination. This consists mainly of written papers in mathematics and Serbo-Croat, set by the school. There is also a test of musical ability; and usually have to become reasonably proficient in one instrument. There is an interview with the school's pedagogic and psychological staff, a health check, an examination of the record of work in the basic school, and attention is also paid to

speech and pronounciation - the last, it is insisted,[75] is not to discriminate between the various dialectal pronounciations, but to ensure clarity and absence of speech impediments. When the final assessment is made, candidates are taken in rank order. In the Belgrade school in 1965, for instance, this meant accepting 150 out of 250 applicants.[76]

Alongside the teachers' schools are a few special gimnazija teachers' departments (učiteljska odelenja pri gimnazijama), working along the same lines and following much the same courses and programmes, but within the organisational framework of the general secondary schools. These are on the way out; in 1963-1964 there were 25 of them, but 14 were already being run down. There were six in Serbia (all of them in the Kosmet), two in Slovenia, eight in Macedonia. Of the last, however, five were in process of being closed, as were all nine in Bosnia-Herzegovina, while Croatia and Montenegro had none at all.[77] As with the teachers' schools, but more rapidly the general trend since the beginning of the 1960s has been towards the abolition of schools of this type.

Finally, this category embraces a few specialist secondary teachers' schools (7 with 1,115 students in 1965.)[78] These comprised one vocational teachers' school in Croatia (for technical teachers), one domestic science teachers' school in Macedonia, and five physical education teachers' schools - one in Bosnia-Herzegovina, two in Macedonia, two in Slovenia.

2. The Higher Pedagogic School (viša pedagoška škola) comes under the general category of higher schools (više škole). These, confusingly enough, are at a lower level than the high schools (visoke škole). High schools are institutions of university level, while higher schools are equivalent to the first stage (2-3 years) only. Higher pedagogic schools admit students who have successfully completed upper secondary schooling (the gimnazija or equivalent) for a two-year course, and train subject specialist teachers for the middle secondary stage - classes V-VIII of the basic school.

Most students (not surprisingly in view of the brevity of the course) specialise in one subject only, but there are some departments which train teachers of two cognate subjects, mainly because of the needs of small rural schools. These have difficulty in providing the full range of subject specialists in any case, due to a general shortage of teachers - as high as 40 per cent in some areas.[79] If all teachers were single-subject specialists, the problem would be greatly exacerbated. The subject combinations (nastavne grupe) are not standardised for the country as a whole, but those offered in the Belgrade Higher Pedagogic School are fairly typical:

(1) Serbo-Croat language and literature, Yugoslav literature. (Literature in the other South Slav languages, such as Slovene or Macedonian, come under this last heading,

though the languages are not studies separately.)

(2) Foreign languages; in this school, English, French or Russian.

(3) Mathematics.

(4) Physics.

(5) Chemistry.

(6) Biology.

(7) History.

(8) Art.

(9) Physical education.

(10) Physics and general technical education.

(11) History and geography.

(12) Chemistry and Biology.[80]

By way of contrast, the Zrenjanin Higher Pedagogic School offered the following single-subject courses in 1966-1967:[81]

(1) Serbo-Croat language schools

(a) for work in Serbo-Croat language schools

(b) for work in national minority schools

(2) Russian language and literature

(3) English language and literature

(4) Rumanian language and literature

(5) Mathematics

(6) General technical education

(7) Biology and nature study

(8) Physical and health education

(9) Music

(10) Physics and chemistry

Students specialising in physics and general technical education are accepted from technical secondary schools, and some of those specialising in art, music or physical education come from the appropriate special secondary schools. The normal course, however, is to come from gimnazije or teachers' schools. Again, the proportions vary; in the Belgrade higher pedagogic school, the majority of the students had completed teachers' schools, and thus had five years of pedagogic training behind them.[82] In the part-time courses, nearly all the students are practicing elementary school teachers seeking to improve their qualifications.[83] In point of fact, they will not necessarily teach in middle secondary classes when they finish; Belgrade, in marked contrast to the country as a whole, has a surplus of teachers, and can thus afford to employ over-qualified people.[84] It seems that this institution, like many others in large towns, is sought after by people who want to teach in the city rather than to improve their qualifications as such. By the same token, they are particularly vulnerable to the distractions of city life which, according to the Rector, does much to explain the alarming failure-rate of thirty per cent.[85]

Higher pedagogic schools are typically small institutions. Out of 16 in the country as a whole (1964 figures)[86] only four had over 1,000 students - Sarajevo, Belgrade, Kragujevac and Niš.

Two of them (Kruševac and Požarevac) had under 200. On average, just over half were full-time students (5,163 out of 10,121); but there was considerable variation: 124 out of 177 in Požarevac were full-time, compared with 115 out of 408 in Novi Sad.

There is little doubt among teachers and officials alike that the two-year course is too short, and that three or even four years would be preferable.[87] So far, however, nothing has been done to extend the length of course, though the possibility remains open.

(3) The Pedagogic Academy (pedagoška akademija)

The pedagogic academy was originally advocated as a new type of teacher training institution in Croatia in 1955. The Federal Commission of Educational Reform proposed that the pedagogic academy should be "a unified school for the training of teachers of the eight-year school", with a three-year course following on upper secondary schooling.[88] This, however, was not fully realised in the educational reform of 1958,[89] which left the teacher training system as varied as ever, with the addition of yet another type of institution. The pedagogic academies thus developed in two forms:

(1) Two-year courses for students after the completions of upper secondary schooling, and

(2) six-year courses for students coming in from the basic school.

Just as the types of entry to the teachers' schools and the higher pedagogic schools were combined in the pedagogic academies, so were

the types of qualification. Teachers of both elementary and middle secondary stages were trained in the new institutions. Although the original aim of using the academies as a means of raising standards and the total length of course has not yet been realised, therefore, at least they have been able to develop as a bridge between the two types of institution.

Pedagogic academies started in Croatia, with the transformation of the existing teachers' schools in 1960-1961. Montenegro followed in 1963 by combining the Nikšić teachers' school with the higher pedagogic school in Cetinje. At the same time, Macedonia amalgamated no less than five of the existing teachers' schools and five teacher training departments in gimnazije to form the pedagogic academy of Skopje. Most of the six-year courses were phased out in the process of transformation. By 1963, there were 17 academies in Yugoslavia, one (in Montenegro) offering both six- and two-year courses, the rest (14 in Croatia and two in Macedonia) giving two-year courses only. By 1964-1965 there were 19, all of them giving two-year courses.[90]

Even more than the higher pedagogic schools, the pedagogic academies are small institutions, with a total enrolment of 9,231 students, of whom the majority (4,939) are pursuing full-time studies. Only two of them (Zagreb and Skopje) have over 1,000 students, while three of them (Dubrovnik, Šibenik and Zadar) have under 200.[91] In their present form, they differ little in course or standard from the

higher pedagogic schools of Serbia and Bosnia-Herzegovina. Most of them are, in effect, promoted teachers' schools, the six-year courses having been instituted as a way of phasing in the change.

One pedagogic academy, that of Maribor in Slovenia, does not fit into this pattern. Originally formed by the combination of a five-year teachers' school, a gimnazija teacher training department and a higher pedagogic school, it was erected into a "high school" (visoka škola), an institution of university status, at which a five-year course was to be available[92] in 1964, however, it was still an institution of 635 students, comprising the first two years only.[93] Since then, it has grown to normal size. This is the level towards which many Yugoslav teachers see the other academies (and the higher pedagogic schools) developing, but in view of the difficulties so far in establishing even a three-year course, this is clearly some way off. Slovenia still had teachers' schools in 1965, and they have since been developing, as in Croatia, into the less ambitious two-year form of pedagogic academy.

Finally, at the "sub-university" level, there are the Higher School for Special Pedagogy, for the training of teachers for handicapped children, and the Higher Pedagogic Domestic Science School, both in Belgrade. Apart from their specialist orientation, they operate on the same lines (and with the same length of course) as other higher pedagogic schools. The Industrial Pedagogic High School in Rijeka is sometimes included in this category, but it does not really belong here, since it is

in fact a visoka škola with a four-year course. In any case, specialising as it does in the training of teachers for vocational schools, it falls outside the scope of the present study.

The training of teachers for the many and various national minority schools is carried on in all the above-mentioned types of establishment, either in special departments or in institutions specifically devoted to this purpose. In Croatia, for example, the pedagogic academy in Pula teaches in Italian, the one in Pakrac in Czech. The Niš higher pedagogic school (in Serbia) has a Bulgarian department, that of Zrenjanin, as we have seen, has a Rumanian department. Serbian teachers' schools cater for many nationalities - Slovak in Bački Petrovac, Hungarian in Subotica, Rumanian in Vršac. In the Kosmet province of Serbia, where the population is largely Albanian (Shyptar), the four-year teachers' school in Djakovica, like the gimnazija training departments in Peć, Podujevo, and Kosovska Mitrovica teach in Albanian, and the remaining schools of this category in both Albanian and Serbo-Croat; the Prizren higher pedagogic school has departments both of Albanian and Turkish. In Macedonia, the teachers' school in Skopje and the gimnazija teacher training department in Tetovo are both Albanian, the teachers' school in Kumanovo has a department for Turkish teachers; the Nikola-Karev teachers' school and the pedagogic academy, both in Skopje, have Albanian departments. All other teacher training in the republic is conducted in Macedonian.[94]

(4) Higher Educational Institutions (visoke škole)

So far, we have been concerned with the training of teachers for the basic school (classes I-VIII). Except where there are acute shortages (acute enough, that is, to overbear the regulations), these institutions do not provide teachers for the upper secondary level - the gimnazija or equivalent. Teachers at this level (profesori) are recruited from the universities or "high schools" of equivalent status. Although these institutions do provide teacher training during the degree courses, these are not (unlike the USSR and other East European countries) compulsory, nor is any post-graduate training required as a condition of employment in the schools. Consequently, it is quite possible, as in England, for a graduate to take up teaching in the senior forms of the secondary school without having undergone any professional training whatever; in fairness, however, nobody tries to make a virtue of this.

The principal source of profesori is the universities or, more correctly, the faculties (fakulteti), since they are the primary units of higher education, the university being an organisational concept rather than a building. Indeed, faculties are often found in different towns from the parent university; the university of Zagreb, for instance, acts as an umbrella for faculties in Zadar as well.[95]

Under the reorganisation of the higher educational system in 1960-1962,[96] "high schools" now operate on three levels of course and qualification:

I (prvi stupen) provides courses lasting for two or three years, following on from the end of the upper secondary stage; this level corresponds to the higher school (viša škola), or to the first two or three years of a university course.

II (vtori stupen) approximates to the second half of a university degree course as it is understood in the United Kingdom, I and II together taking up a total of four or five years.

III (treti stupen) is a two- or three-year period of post-graduate study or research. Stage I is generally thought of as a course of intermediate professional training, II as a deeper and more theoretical course, III as research-based training for specialists and academics, leading to a qualification roughly the equivalent of the Ph.D. Each stage carries a diploma or qualification in its own right, and can either be regarded as self-contained or as a jumping-off point for the next. (Some disciplines, of course, can be studied only at stage II or beyond, but generally the pattern holds good.)

As far as teacher training is concerned, pedagogic academies and higher pedagogic schools are stage I institutions, while university faculties, art academies, music academies (and the Maribor Pedagogic Academy) are stage II. Stage I qualifies to teach in the basic school, stage II in the gimnazija. Stage III, in turn, qualifies for teaching in higher institutions, though this is not always required. The content of course in these institutions will be considered in the next chapter, but we can note for the moment that while few are satisfied (to put it mildly) with the teacher training given in university and similar

courses, even fewer like the situation which makes it possible for graduates to come into the schools untrained. Compulsory training as part of degree courses, along the lines of the USSR and other East European countries, is not seriously considered, many arguing that this would be a waste of time for those not intending to teach. On the other hand, when suggestions were mooted that a compulsory post-graduate training year might be established, perhaps on the Scottish college or English university pattern, this was received with so much hostility that nothing came of it.[97]

(5) In-Service Training

In-service courses are not developed to anything like the scale of those in the USSR. Improvement courses have, however, been on the increase since 1958, in the form mainly of seminars run by the teachers' union, conferences and meetings at local and national level of teachers in particular subject areas, short lecture courses run by City Pedagogic Councils at the beginning of the school year or during the winter holidays, and information services, notably those provided by the Yugoslav Foundation for Educational Research (Jugoslovenski zavod za proučavanje školskih i prosvetnih pitanja) in Belgrade. There are, however, no improvement institutes, nor do the faculties organise courses. It is just as well, then, in view of what is generally agreed to be an inadequate system of initial training, that a considerable amount of teacher training goes on in the schools themselves.

The teacher does not enter the school straight from the training institution permanently qualified. He is a probationer (suplent) for five years, at the end of which he takes the state examination (državni ispit), a combination of written and oral examination and a specimen lesson. Having passed this, he is regarded as fully qualified; if he fails, he can still continue teaching (teacher shortages preclude following this system to its logical conclusion), but without tenure and on a lower salary scale.

Guidance of probationers (and, for that matter, of other teachers too) is a major concern of the school director. Ideally, he is supposed to be a pedagogic adviser to his staff, especially the younger ones. He has the right of access to all classrooms, may drop in unannounced if he chooses, holds discussions on the lessons he has seen, conducts staff seminars on teaching method, tries to involve the staff in the further study of pedagogic literature and even in research. The extent to which this works out in reality varies enormously, as one might expect. Some directors disclaim the will or the competence to act as methods tutors, preferring to busy themselves with administration; others try (often from an inadequate basis of skill or experience) to lady down the law on teaching metho d, to the exasperation of their colleagues.[98] Others, like the director of the Stevan Sindjelić school in Belgrade,[99] depute to their assistant directors as much of the administrative work as possible, and concern themselves with "pedagogic leadership - the main job of any school director", as this one put it, but go about it rather more circumspectly. This

individual goes to considerable trouble to compile bibliographies on educational problems, partly from material supplied by the Foundation, partly from his own perusal of some 30 periodicals. Further, the school keeps an educational library, with basic works, journals and specimen textbooks from other republics, all of which are used for reference or as the raw material for discussion groups. His daily programme includes visiting two or three lessons, discussing them with the teachers, which calls for not a little tact, singly or in groups. At the same time, he disclaims any intention of directing which methods shall be used. Unlike his Soviet counterpart, he does not have a regular teaching load, but sometimes takes lessons before his colleagues if requested. It would be idle to expect that all directors are inclined, or able, to concern themselves with continuous teacher training to this extent, but this at least is an example of how far it can go.

Many of the school organisations play a direct or indirect part in teacher training as well. Even small schools have a great proliferation of committees and councils, with every teacher involved in several. Of these, the governing body (*savet školo*) is concerned mainly with general policy and activities, and is composed of the director, some of the teachers, and representatives of outside bodies - political, social, cultural, etc. The school managing board (*upravni odbor*), consisting of all the teachers, is responsible for general activities, school discipline, etc. but not as a rule with teaching

method or the staff's professional progress. But the teachers' panel (nastavničko veće), a collective of the intire staff, does discuss problems of methodology, standardisation of marks, homework, teaching aids, as well as other relevant problems. On a smaller scale, there is a panel of all the teachers of each class (razredno veće), convened by the form teacher, which also deals with methodological problems and with co-ordination of subject work. Cutting across this, as it were, there is a subject group (stručni aktiv) for all the teachers of any given subject, and it is here that much of the continuous cross-fertilisation takes place. Teachers can visit each others' classes (though they require their colleagues' permission for this), discuss problems of teaching the subject and, in effect, constitute a continuous methods seminar. (This, at least, is true of the schools big enough to have viable subject groups; in smaller or remote schools, this is often not the case, even when the term "subject" is expanded considerably, for instance by grouping teachers of Serbo-Croat, history and perhaps foreign languages into one aktiv, those of mathematics and the sciences into another, and so on.) All of this is of more than academic concern; teachers in Yugoslavia have more discretion in choice of method than do those in other systems, such as that of the USSR, where prescription is more widely relied on, and this obviously makes the advice and support of colleagues particularly valuable. Textbooks, too, are not entirely prescribed; each republic approves 2-4 textbooks for each subject and class, and the final choice is made not by the director, but by the stručni aktiv.

In some schools, too, a teachers' commission has control of the funds for bonus payments to teachers involved in extra work, and to teachers involved in extra work, and to teachers improving their methods and pedagogic education generally - a system in some ways analogous to the French teachers' annual assessment, but made by the school, not a Ministry. This often acts an an additional spur to the serving teacher, whether suplent or finally qualified, and helps to explain why in many schools teacher training can be, as the Stevan Sindjelić director put it, "co-terminous with professional life".

(6) Summary of Post-War Developments

As we have seen, teacher training in Yugoslavia has been in a state of constant change since 1948, change which has been gathering impetus since the beginning of the 1960s. The most important development has been the appearance on the scene of the pedagogic academies as a type of institution designed to take over the function of the teachers' schools and the higher pedagogic schools, thus in effect abolishing the training of teachers at secondary level. It has been constant government policy to complete this transition over the country as a whole (with, according to Dragutin Franković, most of the initiative coming from the teachers themselves).[100] As already noted, the process began in Croatia, spreading to other republics, until in 1967 only Serbia retained the older system, temporarily.[101]

The official figures, while reflecting this trend in general, show some confusion, due largely to the fact that teachers' schools in the process of transformation are sometimes entered in the lists as teachers' schools, sometimes as pedagogic academies; similarly, some sets of figures distinguish between higher pedagogic schools and pedagogic academies, while others do not. In consequence, there are frequent inconsistencies in the statistics, and these have to be allowed for; otherwise, one is liable to get the impression that (for instance) higher pedagogic schools are on the increase, when in fact what is increasing is the training of teachers at higher (vyšše škola) level, an increase accounted for by the growth of the pedagogic academies.

With these reservations, we can note the trends with regard to the teachers' schools. From 1938-1966, there is a constant increase in the number of students. Rather less consistently, there is an increase in the number of schools up to 1962-1963; from 1963-1964 there is a drop in the number of teachers' schools, compensated for to some extent by an increase in the number of kindergarten schools. So far, the differences are small either way, and the general trend rather inconclusive:

TABLE III 3 [102]

YUGOSLAVIA: TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS AND STUDENTS, 1938-1966

	Tchs. Traing. Schs.		Tchrs. Schs.		Kind. Schs.	
Year	Schs.	Students	Schs.	Students	Schs.	Students
1938/39	37	4268	34	3898		
1949/50	77	22387	62	20944	3	700
1950/51	80	27948	63	26088	8	907
1951/52	78	24640	64	23193	6	668
1952/53	79	22983	62	21086	4	729
1953/54	79	20762	60	18277	4	776
1954/55	81	21799	60	18696	5	976
1955/56	84	20499	62	16870	6	1145
1956/57	82	20930	60	16722	6	1359
1957/58	78	21638	57	17339	6	1420
1958/59	77	23648	56	19481	6	1486
1959/60	79	25755	60	21622	6	1673
1960/61	91	27950	71	24002	7	1652
1961/62	108	30335	89	26617	7	1677
1962/63	111	31912	92	28303	7	1806
1963/64	99	28716	81	25350	7	1831
1964/65	88	29042	72	25789	7	1994
1965/66	71	29120	57	25964	7	2041

Source: Stat Bilt., (Ref. 102)

The drop in numbers in the 1950s can be attributed to the lower birth-rate during and after the war, rather than to educational policy. Types of teacher training schools and departments other than teachers' schools and kindergarten schools are not listed separately, but are included in the totals.

Breakdown of the different types of training establishments by republics, however, shows a rather different picture. Table III 4 compares their distribution in the years 1962-63 and 1963-64:

TABLE III 4 [103]

YUGOSLAVIA: TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS BY REPUBLICS, 1962-63 and 1963-64

Institutions	B&H	Mgo	Cr.	Mac.	Slo.	Srb.	Total SFRJ
(1) 1962-63							
Teachers' schools:							
4-year	11	-	-	7	-	-	18
5-year	-	1	16	-	7	24	48
Total	11	1	16	7	7	24	66
Higher Ped. Schs.	4	3	-	-	1	12	20
Ped. Academies	-	-	14	2	1	-	17
(2) 1963-64							
Teachers' schools:							
4 year	11	-	-	6(5)	-	5	22(5)
5 year	-	-	(15)	-	7	21	43(15)
Total	11	-	(15)	6(5)	7	26	65(20)
Higher ped. Schs.	4	-	-	-	1	12	17
Ped. Academies	-	1	14	2	1	-	18

(Gimnazija training department and kindergarten schools are not included. Figures in brackets denote schools in the process of abolition or transformation.)

This indicates a gradual replacement (albiet uneven) of the teachers' schools and higher pedagogic schools by the pedagogic academies. This is not althogether apparent from the enrolment figures, but this can be attributed to the continued expansion of numbers in such of these schools as continue to exist, particularly in Serbia, and even more markedly in the Kosmet and Vojvodina provinces. This can be illustrated by the breakdown of schools and students by republics in 1965:

TABLE III 5[104]

YUGOSLAVIA: TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS BY REPUBLICS, 1965

	B&H	Mgo.	Cr.	Mac.	Slo.	Sbia.	Total SFRJ
Teacher Trg.							
Schools	12	1	3	8	12	35	71
Students	7375	724	530	1584	2193	16714	29120
(women	4422	383	530	493	1812	10070	17710)
Teachers	319	33	29	51	199	799	1430
of which:							
Teachers'							
Schools	11	1	"	5	8	32	57
Students	7012	724	"	1123	1445	15660	25964
(women	4320	383	"	344	1196	9016	15259)
Teachers	307	33	"	32	136	736	1242
Kindergarten							
schools	"	"	2	"	2	3	7
Students	"	"	493	"	494	1054	2041
(women	"	"	493	"	494	1054	2041)
Teachers	"	"	20	"	41	64	125
Other schools	1	"	1	3	2	"	7
Students	363	"	37	461	264	"	1115
(women	102	"	37	159	122	"	420)
Teachers	12	"	9	19	23	"	63

Source : Stat. Bilten 419

(Note: These figures do not tally completely with those given in Table III 4. This is partly because this source does not distinguish schools in the process of closing down, partly because gimnazija departments are included under teachers' schools, as they are not in the other sources, and partly because of some discrepancies in nomenclature. The main point, however, emerges clearly enough: by 1965, teachers' schools of all kinds had been largely replaced except in Serbia and to a lesser extent in Bosnia and Hercegovina, surviving elsewhere (marginally) for kindergarten teachers and a few other categories. By 1967 they were virtually confined to Serbia. The replacement of higher pedagogic schools (again, with the exception of Serbia) is even more pronounced.

At the same time, there has been a consistent expansion of teacher training at the higher school (viša škola) level since the war, quite apart from the change-over from one type of institution to another. The upgrading of these institutions by increasing the length of course has yet to be accomplished, but in the meantime nobody pretends that two years is an adequate period of training.[105] It seems that this will have to wait until Serbia follows the other republics in moving towards "higher education for all teachers who work in the basic schools, regardless of the age of the pupils."[106] Although in 1965 there were still more students in teachers' schools of various types that in Stages I higher institutions, the trend is clearly running against teacher training at secondary level. Serbia, of course, is a big exception, but it is an exception nonetheless, and it is intended to bring it into line with the rest of the country within the next few years.

The trends in enrolment in training institutions for teachers in basic schools can be seen in the following table: the relative, rather than absolute figures, are the most significant.

TABLE III 6[107]

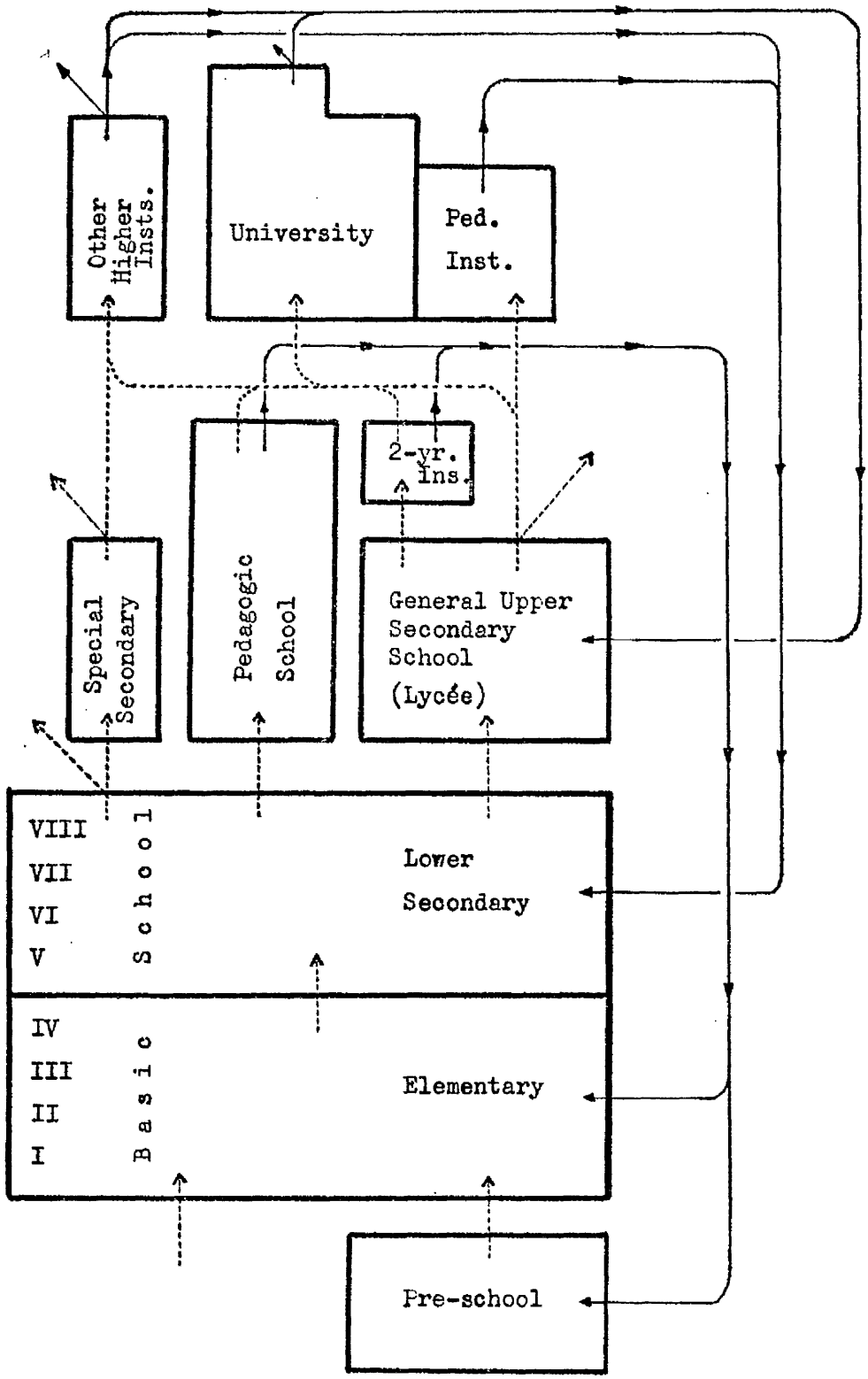
YUGOSLAVIA: Teachers for basic schools: students enrolled in teachers' schools and higher schools, 1951-1965

Year	Teachers' Schools	Higher Schools
1951/52	23,200	5,600
1952/53	21,100	5,300
1953/54	18,800	4,500
1954/55	18,600	6,500
1955/56	16,900	6,800
1956/57	16,700	7,900
1957/58	17,300	7,900
1958/59	19,500	8,600
1959/60	21,600	9,700
1960/61	24,000	9,900
1961/62	26,600	13,200
1962/63	28,300	17,000
1963/64	25,400	19,700
1964/65	25,800	20,200

Source: Stat. Bilton (adapted.)

Kindergarten schools not included; numbers of students to the nearest 100.

Fig. 4 : R U M A N I A - The Structure of Teacher Training



Broken arrows = into further courses
Unbroken arrows = into teaching
Oblique arrows = into other work

4. Rumania

The Rumanian system, though similar in many respects to the Yugoslav, is rather simpler in structure, partly because of the high degree of centralisation in Rumania. Since the Ministry of Education (Ministeriul învățămîntului) in Bucharest is responsible for the entire educational system, from kindergartens to universities (with the exception of some specialised higher educational institutions) a substantially uniform pattern applies throughout the country.

This is not to say that there is clarity all the way; as the figures show (see Table III 7),[108] policies are sometimes put into effect with prompt (some would argue excessive) speed, so that the number of institutions can fluctuate startlingly from year to year as demands change, or the authorities change their minds. This particularly affects the amalgamation or separation of schools: in the three years 1960-61 to 1962-63, the number of kindergarten teachers' schools rose from three to seven then fell again to one.[109] Again, the abolition of institutions, or their transformation, takes time to implement as the old generation moves out and the new moves in. Thus, there were both four-year and six-year pedagogic schools in operation from 1957 to 1960. Again, two-year pedagogic institutes were set up in 1956, discontinued in 1962, only to make a temporary reappearance the following year, until the law of 1966 recast the whole system. It is perhaps not surprising that, in Bucharest in 1965, the rector of a training college

said that the two-year institutes still existed, an official in the Ministry said that they did not, while a member of the Institute of Pedagogic Sciences said that they were really the same thing as the top of the pedagogic schools.[110]

Ambiguities of detail apart, the main lines are distinct enough. Rumanian teachers are grouped into three categories: (1) Kindergarten teachers (educatoare); teachers of general subjects in the elementary classes (I-IV) of the basic schools (învăţători); professors (profesori), subject specialist teachers at the middle and upper secondary levels. Broadly, teachers of the first two types are trained at the level of what is called pedagogic education (învăţămînt pedagogic), that is, teacher training at institutions of upper secondary level or a little higher. Profesori are trained at the level of higher pedagogic education (învăţămînt pedagogic superior); there is a division, however, between teachers of the middle secondary stage (Classes V-VIII), who are trained in three-year institutes, and teachers in the lycées (upper secondary stage) who come from the universities.

(1) Pedagogic Education

This sector of teacher training was reorganised at the very end of the period under consideration; these changes will be looked at presently. Meanwhile, however, the system will be described (using the "historic present") as it has existed up to the end of 1966.

The basic unit for the training of elementary school and pre-school teachers is the pedagogic school (școala pedagogică), of which there are two principal types:

(1) Kindergarten teachers' schools (școli pedagogice de educatoare) and (2) Elementary teachers' schools (școli pedagogice de învățători), both admitting pupils from the basic school - from class VII until 1964, subsequently from class VIII. In the immediate post-war period, these schools operated as four-year pedagogic schools (școli pedagogice de patru ani); under the reorganisation of 1956[111] (which, among other things, transferred the Bucharest secondary physical education school from the pedagogic to the general educational system) the schools were extended to six-year pedagogic schools (școli pedagogice de șase ani), still admitting pupils from the basic schools, and so remained until 1966 brought further changes. Throughout this time, as has already been noted, numbers of schools and pupils have fluctuated considerably; one fairly consistent trend, however, has been the growth of the numbers of courses for kindergarten teachers, with a peak in the early 1950s and again in the mid-1960s.[112] By 1964, there was only one kindergarten teachers' school left; other pedagogic schools, however, continued to maintain departments for this purpose.

Two-year pedagogic institutes (institutele pedagogice de învățători) were also set up under the decree of 1956.[113]

Those admitted students who had completed general secondary education and left the lycee with the maturity examination (examen de maturitate), passed the requisite entrance examination. The two-year course qualified graduates to teach in the elementary classes. In a sense, this new type of institution duplicated the work of the existing pedagogic schools, but, it was hoped, to a somewhat higher standard. As one author has it:

> Here, the teachers of the future have the chance of acquiring a higher specialty, centred on the general culture acquired in the secondary school ... They will be able to participate with increased competence and greater efficiency in the work of spreading culture among the masses and in the upbringing (educatia) of children of the younger classes.114

This must be seen against the background of the situation up to 1956. At that time, the basic school was of seven years' duration, the pedagogic school (like the lycée) of four. Students who had taken the institute course would thus begin to teach about the age of 20 instead of 18. The lengthening of the pedagogic schools to six years would, of course, bring their graduates up to the same age eventually, but this would take time - the first graduates of the six-year course would not be available until 1962-63, while the numbers of graduates from the four-year course began to fall off in 1956-57, as soon as the changes got under way. This was inevitable, but it meant three increasingly lean years for the supply of pedagogic school graduates, and two years (1960-1962) with none at all. From this point of view, the two-year

institutes can be regarded as a device to plug the gap. In 1962, when the new six-year trained teachers were at last available, the two-year institutes, already being phased out, were discontinued.[115]

Some of the, however, were reopened in the following year. This was partly because it was found that more primary teachers were going to be needed after all, but also because at this time the pressure on university places was becoming particularly acute, as so often happens in systems where the expansion of secondary education greatly outstrips any feasible expansion at higher level. A number of 2-3 year post-secondary technical colleges were opened to provide another outlet, and the two-year institutes seemed to fill a useful role here too.[116] They even expanded; in 1964-65 they had nearly 4,000 students, more than they had had since their inception.[117] In total length of course, as in function, they were by this time overlapping the pedagogic schools, from which they could not readily be disentangled, hence much of the official confusion. Both types were producing teachers with the maturity examination and a qualification to teach in primary classes or kindergarten, the main difference being that on one they were taken concurrently, in the other consecutively. The total length of course was six years in either case (the lycee accounting for four). With the raising of the basic school from 7 to 8 years in 1964-1965,[118] this would have meant, had this system remained in existence, that <u>all</u> primary teachers would have had a total of 14 years' school and training, starting teaching at the age of 21 on

average; all the students in question, however, had been to school under the older dispensation of seven years basic school. There were, in fact, some suggestions[119] that the two-year institutes should be expanded to take over the functions of the pedagogic schools entirely, something after the fashion of the development of the Yugoslav pedagogic academies. But this did not happen; the law of 1966 in effect recast the entire secondary school system along rather different lines, as we shall see presently.

The development of different types of institution at this level, and the fluctuations, can be seen from the following table:

Table III. 7 /

TABLE III. 7

RUMANIA : TEACHER TRAINING - SCHOOLS, STUDENTS, GRADUATES
(excluding Universities). 1938 -39, 1948-49, 1950-51 - 1965-66

19 -	38-39	48-49	50-51	51-52	52-53	53-54	54-55	55-56	56-57	57-58	58-59	59-60	60-61	61-62	62-63	63-64	64-65	65-66
Schools (Total)	55	64	110	110	115	113	57	38	21	19	20	20	25	32	9	17	15	24
of which: 4-year ped. schools	55	64	110	110	115	113	57	38	14									
of which: Primary	55	61	89	89	90	89	55	37	10									
Kindergarten		3	20	20	24	23	1	1	4									
Phys. educ.			1	1	1	1	1	-										
6-year ped. schools										13	13	13	14	21	9	9	9	14
of which: Primary										10	11	11	11	4	8	7	8	13
Kindergarten										3	2	2	3	17	1	2	1	1
2-year ped. insts.									7	6	7	7	11	11		8	6	10
Students (Total)	5,537	14,376	33,046	34,722	28,761	27,823	13,079	6,955	3,672	3,072	4,407	6,764	9,271	9,267	7,024	10,498	12,498	12,703
of whom: 4-year ped. schools	5,537	14,376	33,046	34,722	28,761	27,823	13,079	6,955	3,460	1,688	764	280						
of whom: Primary	5,537	13,676	25,879	26,972	21,666	21,176	11,949	6,378	2,736	1,366	573	69						
Kindergarten		700	6,926	7,362	6,641	6,194	884	437	594	322	191	161						
Phys. educ.			241	382	454	456	246	140	100									
6-year ped. schools										955	2,854	5,016	7,631	8,549	7,024	7,703	8,589	9,282
of whom: Primary										736	2,094	3,682	5,181	4,947	6,422	6,354	6,855	6,814
Kindergarten										259	757	1,344	2,450	3,573	602	1,352	1,734	2,468
2-year ped. insts.									212	389	789	1,518	1,640	718		2,792	3,909	3,421
Graduates (Total)	800	2,410	4,690	8,688	7,190	6,948	5,061	3,628	1,593	1,106	706	815	871	701	815	1,616		
of whom: 4-year ped. schools	800	2,410	4,690	8,688	7,190	6,948	5,061	3,628	1,593	908	527	228						
of whom: Primary	800	2,203	3,353	6,329	5,141	5,569	4,677	3,548	1,816	760	501	69						
Kindergarten		207	1,218	2,200	1,920	1,251	347	37	177	148	26	159						
Phys. educ.			116	104	129	128	37	43	100									
6-year ped. schools															815	1,616	1,888	
of whom: Primary															636	1,205	1,883	
Kindergarten															179	411		
2-year ped. insts.										208	179	537	871	701			2,178	

Source : An. Stat. R.S.R. 1966

ii. Higher Pedagogic Education

(2) Pedagogic Institutes (Institutele pedagogice)

These colleges, affiliated to the universities, admit students who have completed the general secondary school (lycée); graduates are qualified as subject specialists for the middle secondary stage (classes V-VIII of the basic school).

There are 14 institutes, offering single or double specialisms. They vary greatly, not only in size, but in range of courses available, as the accompanying Table III. 3 illustrates.[121]

Unlike the Soviet pedagogic institutes, they do not discriminate in length of course between students following single or double subject specialisms - the period of study is three years in either case. Evening and external students, however, have to take four years for their courses, including a two-week period of full-time attendance before the summer examinations. Rather more than half of the students are enrolled in some kind of part-time course, most of them being elementary school teachers who want to improve their qualifications.[122]

Pedagogic institutes, with over 23,200 students in 1965/1966 out of a total of 130,600 in all forms of higher education, account for the biggest single category in the higher educational system. (cf. 15,000 out of 99,000 in 1962/63.[123]

TABLE III. 6

RUMANIA : SUBJECT GROUPS IN PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTES

INSTITUTES	Rumanian Lang. & Lit.	Rumanian & Russian	French & Rumanian	English & Rumanian	German & Rumanian	Rumanian & Hungarian	Rumanian & History	Hungarian & History	Library Organization	History & Geography	Nat. Agr. Sciences	Phys., Chem., Tech. & Nat. Sciences	Mathematics	Fine Arts	Music	Physical Education
Bacău	x									x	x		x			x
Baia Mare	x										x		x			
Braşov											x	x	x			
Bucharest	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Cluj	x	x	x	x						x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Constanţa	x									x	x	x	x			
Craiova	x									x	x	x	x			
Galaţi	x										x	x	x			
Jassy	x	x	x	x	x					x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Oradea	x									x			x			x
Piteşti	x										x		x			
Suceava	x									x			x			
Timişoara	x	x			x					x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Tîrgu Mureş						x	x	x				x	x		x	

(2) Universities

Subject specialist teachers for the upper secondary stage (lycées and the equivalent) come not from the pedagogic institutes but from the university faculties, where teacher-training subjects - pedagogy, psychology, methods and teaching practice - form an integral part of all courses, except for those, such as medicine or law, which commit the students to another profession. As in the USSR (but unlike Yugoslavia) these courses are compulsory; like the USSR, but again unlike Yugoslavia, Rumania uses a system of direction of graduates according to performance in the final degree examinations, with due regard to family obligations, etc.[124] It is used much less extensively than in the USSR, however. For one thing, there is no general problem of teacher supply, though there are some shortages in village schools; for another, it has been consistent policy to maintain small pedagogic institutes and schools in provincial towns, with preference for admission given to students who guarantee to teach in the area. This, of course, does not greatly affect the supply of lycée teachers, who still have to be drawn from the universities; but it does do something to reduce the drift to the major towns that so worries the Yugoslavs.

The University of Bucharest can serve as an example of the range of courses in which teachers are trained. Not all of these courses, naturally, supply teachers to the school system. Those which do in significant numbers are marked with an asterisk.[125]

Table III. 9

Rumania: University specialisms

Faculty	Specialisms: Main subject	Second subject
1. Mathematics and mechanics	mathematical analysis	
	geometry*	
	algebra*	
	fluid mechanics	
	probability calculus	
	computing machines	
	astronomy	
	functional equations	
2. Physics	nuclear physics	
	electro-radiophysics	
	spectroscopy	
	theoretical physics*	
	physics of solids*	
	geophysics	
	macromolecular physics	
	biophysics	
3. Chemistry	inorganic chemistry*	
	organic chemistry*	
	physical chemistry*	
	radio-chemistry	
	physical chemistry of macromolecules and polymers	
	biochemistry	
4. Biology	biology (botany)*	
	biology (zoology)*	
	biology (plant production)	

5. Geology-geography	geology	
	physical geography*	
	economic geography*	
6. Law	law	
7. Philosophy	philosophy*	
	psychology	
	pedagogy	Rumanian lang. / lit.*
8. History	Rumanian history*	
	world history*	
9. Rumanian language and literature	Rumanian language and literature*	
(Institute of Foreign Language and Literatures)		
10. Slav language	Russian*	Rumanian*
	Slav langs. and literatures	
	Ukrainian*	Rumanian*
	Bulgarian*	Rumanian*
	Polish*	Rumanian*
11. Romance and classical	French*	Rumanian*
	Spanish*	Rumanian*
	Classical langs. & literature	Rumanian*
12. Germanic langs.	English*	Rumanian*
	German*	Rumanian*
13. Section of Oriental langs.	Oriental langs. and lits.	

The other universities, if rather more limited, offer much the same kinds and combinations of courses. There are, however, some variations that are relevant here: in the Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj,[126] the Faculty of History-Philosophy offers Rumanian history as a single specialty, but world history only in combination with Rumanian language and literature. The

Faculty of Philology offers Hungarian or Rumanian as single subjects, or a combination of the two with Rumanian as the main subject, or Russian, French, English or German with either Rumanian or Hungarian as a second subject. (This dates from the time when there were two universities in Cluj, the Babeş University giving instruction in Rumanian and the Bolyai in Hungarian; they were amalgamated in the wave of nationalism that began to make itself felt in the early 1960s, and which still continues unabated.) In some of the courses, only a few actually enter teaching, usually those who have not managed to get a job in some field of scientific research; in others, like Rumanian or the major foreign languages, the great majority do so.

On average, about 80 per cent of university graduates go into teaching;[127] this, together with the numbers in the pedagogic institutes, makes higher pedagogic education much the biggest sector of the higher educational system, with about 40 per cent of the total enrolment (cf. some 33 per cent in technical faculties).[128] This sector has also undergone the second highest rate of increase since before the war (nearly 685 per cent as compared with 847 per cent in the technical faculties.)[129] The general increase, and the changes in the balance between the different categories of student, can be seen in Table III. 10.[130]

TABLE III. 10

RUMANIA : STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION - PRINCIPAL CATEGORIES 1938 - 1965

	1938/1939	1948/1949	1950/1960	1960/1961	1961/1962	1962/1963	1963/1964	1964/1965	1965/1966
Total Students of whom :	26,600	43,700	68,200	72,000	88,700	98,000	112,000	128,300	140,800
Technology (incl. Agr. & forestry)	5,200	12,300	24,900	30,500	35,200	40,700	46,200	50,300	52,300
Medicine and Pharmacy	3,500	10,000	7,800	7,800	7,800	7,000	8,300	9,900	9,900
Economics	3,100	3,300	5,100	5,100	5,800	7,800	9,400	10,600	12,900
Art	1,300	2,000	1,400	1,700	2,000	2,300	2,300	2,400	2,400
Law	7,900	5,500	4,700	3,100	2,400	2,700	2,300	3,500	4,500
University & ped. inst. teacher training	5,400	9,100	13,300	23,000	30,000	36,400	42,200	45,300	47,500

Source : An.Stat. R.S.R. 1966

iii. Further Training and In-Service Training

Further training and improvement courses are organised at many different levels. As early as 1946, the teachers' union began to organise lectures and seminars; these were to some extent aimed at political reorientation, but were also concerned with the provision of methodological guidance for existing teachers, some of whom were unquestionably under-trained. In 1947, the Ministry of Education began to organise systematic improvement courses, and in 1954 institutes for the further education of teachers were set up in the university centres, with courses taught mainly (though not entirely) by the staff of the university departments of pedagogy and allied subjects.[131] The Institute of Pedagogic Sciences (Institutul de Științe Pedagogice), like its counterparts elsewhere, doubles as research institute and disseminator of educational and methodological information among teachers.

Further training, however, is not limited to formal courses or Ministry-run conferences, union meetings or improvement institutes; it is rather more pervasive. Regional and local conferences and summer courses, working within the limits of plans approved by the Ministry, are held on general educational problems and on particular issues of subject methods; teachers are expected to attend at least some of these as a normal part of their duties. At the level of the school itself

this process still operates, with the director playing a part not unlike that found in at least some Yugoslav schools - visiting lessons, holding discussions, giving advice. One of them (the director of the Ion Neculce lycée in Bucharest)[132] regards this, together with parental and other outside liaison, as his main job, leaving the actual administration of the school to his two assistant directors. He visits on average 450 lessons a year, and claims that this is by no means unusual. Each school has its methods commission (comisia metodică) which holds regular discussions of problems of method as they specifically affect the school, while teachers of the same subject also form their own methods circles - rather like the Yugoslav stručni aktiv, but lacking its powers of discretion and choice. Every school has a room set aside as the methods cabinet (cabinetul metodic), a combination of workshop, library committee-room and museum.

In 1964-1965, some 18,000 teachers took part in improvement courses of one kind or another, not counting the less formal but continuous activities at school level.[133] How much of this is due to professional enthusiasm is a matter of speculation; but activity of this kind is also in the interests of the teachers from the financial and career point of view, since the whole system of certification favour it. Instead of a once-and-for-all qualification, there is a series of teaching degrees (grade didactice). The newly qualified teacher, with

his state examination behind him, enters the school as a probationer (stagiar) for three years. At the end of this time, during which he has been under the supervision of his director and senior colleagues, he is visited by the inspectorate and advisors from the universities or pedagogic institutes for a series of test lessons and an examination of his general school record. This is followed by an examination, written and oral, on subject content, methods, and educational theory. Having passed this "final degree" (gradul definitiv), he is now a permanently qualified teacher. There are, however, further degrees that he may take, involving lectures organised by the improvement institutes, special 15-30 day courses of further training, and the continuous process of training that the school work itself, with its methods circles and commissions, is expected to supply. The last two degrees, called, confusingly enough, "second" and "first" degree in that order (gradul secund and gradul întîi) are taken after 10 and 15 years respectively; unlike gradul definitiv, they are not compulsory, but they do entitle the holders to increases in salary. Beyond this there are other state awards, such as the title of "merited teacher"; 126 of these, with 206 other medals and awards, were handed out in 1964.[134] These awards are not gained by examination, but by generally meritorious work, and may be held to be a further incentive. One way and another, there are adequate reasons for regarding teacher training as a continuous process, with the school operating quite deliberately as a training institution in its own right.

iv. Summary of Developments in the Post-War Period

Most of the changes in Rumanian teacher training structure date from the middle 1950s, and came in three principal stages: 1956, 1959, 1966 and after.

In 1956, as we have seen, steps were taken to lengthen the course for elementary school teachers, both by converting the four-year pedagogic schools into six-year schools, and by setting up the two-year pedagogic institutes as "an additional form of training".[135] The three-year institutes were set up in 1959,[136] thus completing the structure that continued in substantially the same form until 1966.

Even in 1965, however, there was a good deal of discussion about the next step; by that time, the problem of producing enough teachers to cope with the raising of basic schooling from seven to eight years had been largely solved. In the breathing-space provided, discussions ranged over not only the teacher training system but the educational system as a whole.[137] It is necessary to examine actual and pending changes in teacher training in the context of the general organisation of the wider educational system.

By 1965, the extension of basic schooling to eight years was complete;[138] and for those completing the lycée, the total length of general schooling was now twelve years instead of eleven. At the nineteenth congress of the Rumanian Communist Party in the same year, Nicolae Ceaugescu called for a further extension and

revision of secondary education.[139] The precise ways of doing this were open to discussion, but the main guidelines were clear enough:

(1) There was to be a further increase in the length of compulsory schooling, with the aim of making twelve years obligatory within the next decade or so. As one influential commentator, Professor Stanciu Stoian of the Institute of Pedagogic Sciences, put it at the time:

> The question is no longer whether we can realise the extension of compulsory schooling, but how. Personally, we believe that it can include, right from the start, not one class but two, the ninth and the tenth ... If we extend by one year, and a little later by a further year, this must cause educational difficulties - new curricula, new syllabuses, new textbooks.[140]

Stoian suggested that the basic school could begin at six instead of seven, thus providing in the first instance compulsory schooling from six to sixteen. This scheme, he was at pains to point out, was only provisional, and still in need of considerable elaboration, but it did not envisage the prolongation of the existing basic school into a ten-year school for all. It would be possible for those who wished to enter some other type of secondary school to do so before the end of the ten-year course.

(2) There was to be an alteration of the structure of upper secondary education, with the introduction of new types of lycée. As Ceaușescu said at the 1965 Congress: "In the coming years, there is going to be an extension of secondary education, which will include general educational lycées and specialised lycées.

Industrial, agricultural, economic and pedagogic lycées will be set up."[141] Rumania already had an extensive network of industrial, agricultural and pedagogic schools, but unlike other East European countries did not have such schools with general educational courses equivalent to the lycées (with the exception of the pedagogic schools and one or two others); they were nearer in function to the Soviet vocational-technical schools rather than the secondary specialised schools.[142]

In justifying the introduction of specialised lycées, Stoian embarked on a discussion of the relationship, as he saw it, between general and vocational education:

> At the risk of appearing paradoxical, we venture to affirm this: there exists in any general education a vocational aspect or intention, just as in any serious vocational training there exists an element of general education. The classical lycée of the last half-century was vocational by nature; it trained functionaries for the bourgeois-landlord state. The "modern" or "real" lycées were also vocational in this sense; they trained future lawyers, businessmen, engineers .....
>
> In our opinion, the problem facing the lycée is ... to acquire a scientific-technical content with a certain vocational orientation to material production. The contemporary technical-scientific revolution, and the needs of industry, demand this.[143]

This part of the recommendations has been carried out. In June 1966 the Grand National Assembly passed the "Law concerning the founding, organisation and functioning of specialist lycées."[144] These lycées were to admit pupils from the basic schools on the same terms as the general lycées, and provide, in a 4-5 year course, professional training combined with general

education to the same standard, with the possibility of entering higher education on completion. Most of these specialised lycées (liceo de specialitate) are technical, agricultural or economic (50, 49 and 41 respectively), with 15,000 day and 3,500 evening students.[145] It is clear from the speeches in the National Assembly[146] that the major concern was with those specialist lycées with a direct bearing on the national economy, but the existing pedagogic schools were transformed into pedagogic lycées.[147] Compared with the transformation of the agricultural-technical schools into institutions of lycée standard, the change for the pedagogic schools was not great; they have been of lycée standard since 1956, and now, with a five-year course after the eighth form instead of six years after the seventh, are more or less back where they were; they have been fitted into a new situation created by the prolongation of the basic school and the reorganisation of upper secondary education, rather than being altered for their own sake.

(3) The relationship of the pedagogic institutes with the universities is under study. In 1965, Stanciu Stoian was suggesting that the length of course in most university and other faculties could be reduced to four years, in view of the increase in the length of general schooling.[148] According to some (including the Rector of the Bucharest Pedagogic Institute)[149] the Ministry was studying ways of integrating the institutes further with the universities, possibly by increasing institute courses to four years when those in the faculties came down from five, and looking for some way -

much more difficult, in view of the course structure - of making the institutes responsible for all secondary teacher training; indeed, since the institutes do train some elementary teachers as well,[150] it was conceivable that they might be made responsible for all teacher training at some future date.

This has not yet been put into any final form, but the signs are that here too change will come as part of a package deal. In 1966, the Prorector of the University of Timişoara outlined a scheme for the "Orientation of University and Higher Pedagogic Education"[151] in an influential party journal, advocating (and fairly obviously trying out policies already determined in principle) a general recasting of the whole university and pedagogic institute structure. Basically, the scheme is an attempt to get round the central difficulty of university courses in their present form - their ambiguity, their not altogether happy attempt to train students simultaneously as teachers and research or scientific specialists. Some of the points raised are relevant to problems that will be considered later, but the basic suggestions are worth looking at here, since there are strong indications that the structure of higher teacher training, and higher education in general, will take a form something like that set forth in this scheme.

> A rational solution would be the transition of university education from a single course of 5 years to a structure of two courses: one basic, of four years, which would give fundamental scientific training, closely bound up with the teaching of pedagogy, corresponding to the needs of the teaching profession; the second, of one or one

> and a half years, devoted, on the basis of rigorous selection, to a preliminary scientific qualification in one of the branches of science (i.e., specialisation to something like the level of the M.Sc. - N.G.) ... The graduates of the first course would have the right, on the basis of a final examination, to obtain the title of teacher, and those of the second course to enter production in posts appropriate to the specialist discipline, and to go on to post-graduate higher scientific qualification (i.e. to a degree analogous to the Ph.D. - N.G.) ...[152]

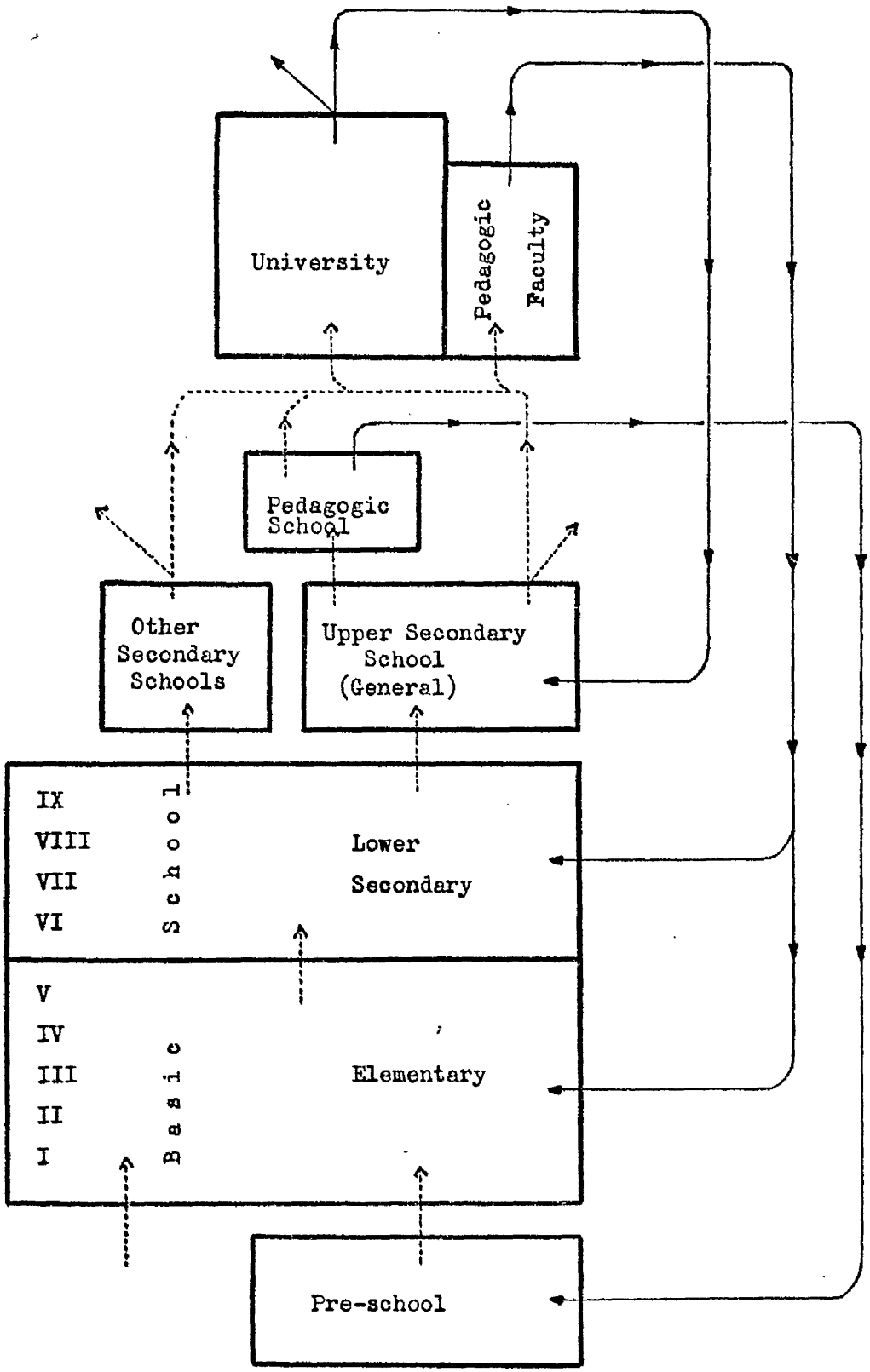
There are also fairly elaborate provisions for further pedagogic training, transfer, and re-structuring of courses, and much is said of the need to raise the level of the pedagogic institutes - among other things, by extending the course to four years, as already suggested elsewhere. Along with proposals for improvement of course content and methods, there are others for wide-ranging organisational changes:

> The improvement of activities in the pedagogic institutes will make it possible to bring them closer to the universities, equivalent in length and content to the basic course outlined above for the universities. Thus they will make up together a single system for training teachers, regardless of whether they are trained in the universities or the pedagogic institutes. The graduates of the institutes will have the same rights as graduates of the first university course as far as teaching appointments are concerned and also for access to the scientific course of university studies. 153

Many difficulties, organisational and otherwise, are foreseen, and it is recognised that the institutes will have to retain their own identity within the university framework - most of them, after all, are not in university towns. In the first instance, perhaps,

only the major institutes may be taken into the university structure. There are likely to be changes in detail, but it seems generally assumed that along the lines described the higher educational system should create eventually a unified pattern of teacher training for all secondary classes, lower and upper alike; and, if the institutes can absorb the pedagogic schools as well, they may provide the entire teaching force fo r the general educational system, only the kindergartens and the technical schools (possibly) being left outside.

Fig . 5 : CZECHOSLCVAKIA : The Structure of Teacher Training



Broken arrows = into further courses
Unbroken arrows = into teaching
Oblique arrows = into other work

5. Czechoslovakia

The remaining East European systems will be dealt with rather more briefly, but can serve to illustrate the variety that can be found in the teacher training systems. That of Czechoslovakia has moved further towards integration than any in Eastern Europe. Before the war,[154] the structure was on the traditional pattern of pedagogic schools for elementary teachers, university or the equivalent for secondary. More specifically, students intending to teach in kindergartens, elementary schools or civic schools embarked on their training after five years of elementary and four years of secondary or civic schooling. Kindergarten teachers were trained in a two-year course; those for elementary or civic schools took a four-year course, parallel to the senior four years of the gymnasium. Alternatively, students who had completed the full secondary course could study for one year at a pedagogic academy. In either case, graduates were qualified in the first instance for elementary teaching; qualification to teach in the civic schools required a further examination and evidence of satisfactory teaching at elementary level. Teachers in secondary schools were trained at university or other institutions of higher education.

Under the system that developed from the Law of 1948, teachers for kindergartens and elementary classes were trained in pedagogic schools, which provided four-year courses after the end of the basic school (at that time, an eight-year school). Subject specialists for the lower secondary stage (V-VIII then) came from

the training colleges with two-year courses for students who had completed secondary school. For the teachers of upper secondary classes (IX-XI) the course was one of four years at universities or colleges of university level.

The 1960 School Law was mainly concerned (like its model in the USSR in 1958) with the introduction of more polytechnical education and the extension of both basic and upper secondary schooling - more permanently in the latter case, as it turned out. At the same time, however, the teacher training system was reorganised. Under the new dispensation, the pedagogic school (pedagogická škola) was retained only for the training of kindergarten teachers. Students were admitted from the 9-year school to four-year courses, or from the upper secondary school to two-year courses.

All other teachers were required to undergo training at higher level. For the basic school, the pedagogic institute (pedagogický institut) provided three-year course for elementary teachers (classes I-V), and four-year courses for subject specialists for the lower secondary classes (VI-IX). There were 20 of these institutes in 1963, each with a nine-year school attached for demonstration lessons and teaching practice.

As before teachers of the upper secondary stage came from the universities; as elsewhere in Eastern Europe, teacher training was an integral part of the curriculum. There was some division,

however; intending teachers followed two-subject courses, "specialists" one-subject courses. In the Charles University of Prague, for instance, the following courses, in two-subject combinations, were offered in the Faculty of Philosophy in 1964: philosophy, pedagogy, history, Czech language, Russian, another Slavonic language, English, French, German, Spanish, Italian, Latin, Oriental languages, physical education. In the same faculty, these single-subject specialisms were available for non-teachers: philosophy; psychology; study of archives; prehistory; ethnography; history of art; musicology; dramaturgy; Czech language and literature; Russian; other Slav languages and literatures (Bulgarian, Polish, Ukrainian, Serbo-Croat); Germanic languages and literatures (English, German, Danish, Dutch, Swedish, Norwegian); Romance languages and literatures (French, Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Rumanian); study of antiquity (Latin, Greek, classical archaeology); languages and literatures of the Balkans (Hungarian, Albanian, Modern Greek); ancient Oriental cultures (Egyptology, Hittitology, Assyriology); languages and literatures of the Far East (Chinese, Japanese, Korean); languages and literatures of the Near and Middle East (Armenian, Georgian, Arabic, Turkish, Persian, Hindi, Bengali, Indonesian); African studies. The faculty of mathematics and physics offers for the teaching diploma mathematics in combination with physics, descriptive geometry or philosophy; for specialists, mathematics, physics, geophysics, meteorology, astronomy. The faculty of natural sciences offers for specialists: chemistry, nuclear chemistry,

geology, applied geophysics, geography and biology, for teachers, chemistry and physics; mathematics and geography, biology with chemistry, philosophy, geography or physical education; geography with physical education. Finally the faculty of physical training and sport, as well as specialist physical training courses, offers combinations of physical education with Czech, Russian, biology, mathematics or geography. Few Czechoslovak universities have quite as wide a range as this, but the general pattern is common enough in its essentials.[155]

Since 1964 there have been further moves to raise the level of teacher training. By a law of 12 August 1964[156] (with effect from 1 September), the pedagogic institutes of Prague and Brandýs were changed into pedagogic faculties of the Charles University, Prague; those of Brno, Olomouc, Trnava and Prešov into pedagogic faculties of the universities of Brno, Olomouc, Bratislava and Košice respectively. Those of České Budějovice, Plzeň, Ústí nn Labe, Hradec Králové, Ostrava, Nitra and Banská Bystrica were promoted to independent pedagogic faculties. The colleges in Karlovy Vary, Pardubice, Gottwaldov, Liberec, Jihlava, Martin and Košice began to close down from the beginning of the academic year 1964-1965.

As for the Institute for Teachers' Further Study in the Charles University, set up in December 1959, this was replaced in January 1965 by the Institute for Teacher Training in the Charles University, a centre for academic research, pedagogy and methods,

attached to the pedagogic faculty of the university and coming directly under its dean; this was in the nature of a tidying-up operation, bringing the training of basic and secondary school teachers, further study and improvement courses, together with research in the university, under one co-ordinating entity.

The pedagogic schools, now confined to the training of kindergarten teachers, have been shifting their emphasis steadily from four-year courses at the end of the nine-year school to two-year courses at the end of the upper secondary school. The last of the four-year students finished at the end of the year 1966-1967, since when there have been two-year courses only.[157]

The training system in Czechoslovakia, at the end of the period under consideration, has resolved itself into the following pattern of courses, all starting after the completion of upper secondary schooling:

(1) Kinder-garten: Pedagogic School - 2 years.

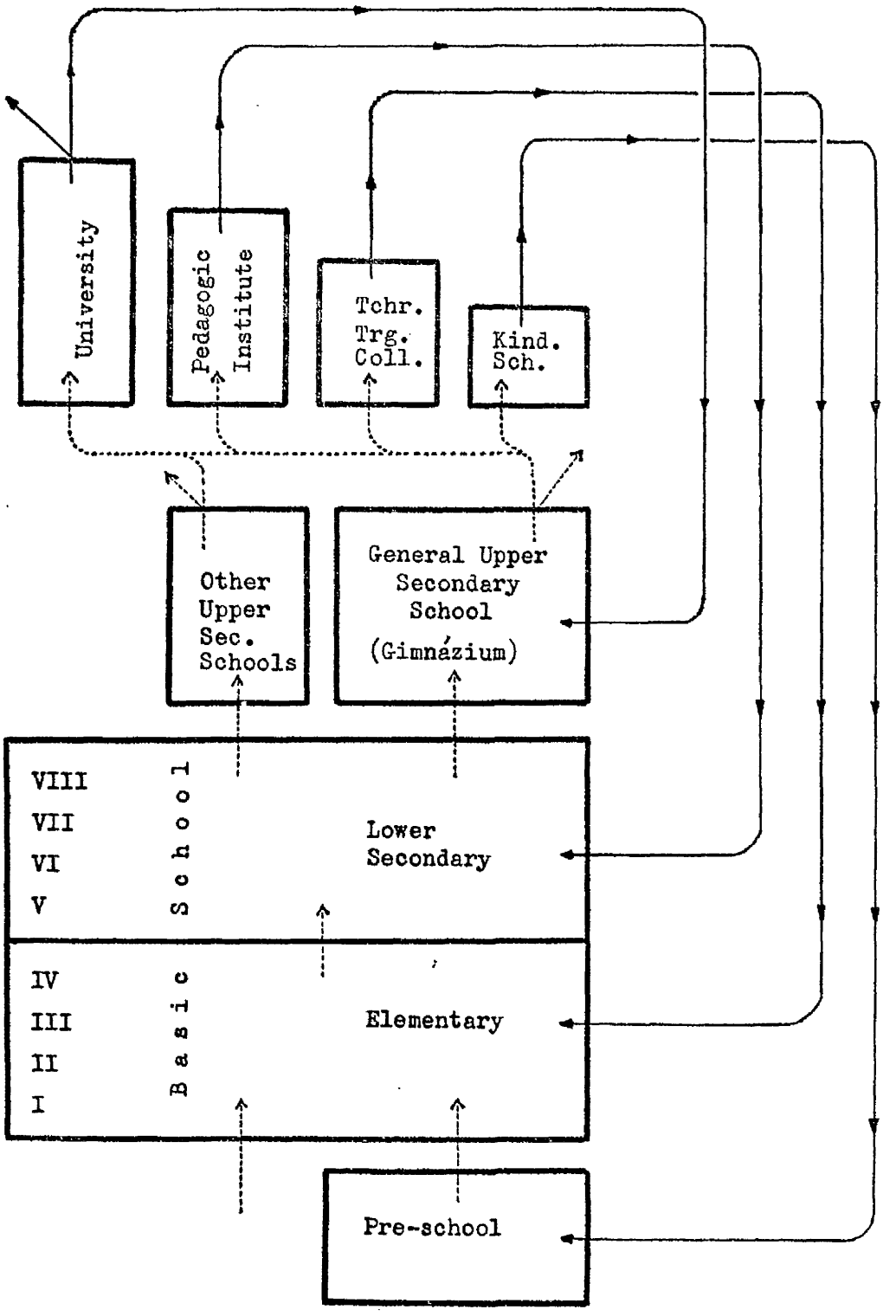
(2) Nine-year school, elementary classes: Pedagogic Faculty - 3 years

(3) Nine-year school, Lower secondary classes: Pedagogic Faculty - 4 years

(4) Upper secondary school: University (other faculties) - 5 years.

In addition, graduates of higher institutes of technology and allied subjects may teach their disciplines (e.g. technical education) in general schools, but must take a one-year post-graduate training course in a university before they can do so.[158]

Fig. 6 : HUNGARY - The Structure of Teacher Training



Broken arrows = into further courses
Unbroken arrows = into teaching
Oblique arrows = into other work

5. Hungary.

Since 1959, all teacher training in Hungary has taken place at institutes of the post-secondary level, the teachers' schools having been phased out and replaced by higher colleges.[159] Consequently, all aspiring teachers have to complete the upper secondary school (gimnázium) or equivalent, and take the final leaving examination (érettségeri). Teachers of the different levels of the school system, however, are still trained in separate institutions, thus:

(1) Kindergarten teachers follow a two-year course in a kindergarten teachers' school (ovónőképző iskola).

(2) Teachers of general subjects in the elementary classes (I-IV) of the basic school ("general school" - általános iskola) follow a three-year course in a teachers' training college (tanár továbbképző kollégium).

(3) Subject specialists for the lower secondary stage (classes V-VIII of the basic school are trained in four-year courses in a pedagogic institute (pedagógiai intézet), and

(4) Subject specialists for the upper secondary stage (gimnázium) have to be graduates of the appropriate faculties of the university (egyetem) or equivalent higher institutions, such as art academies, etc. The course lasts for five years, and includes pedagogy, psychology, teaching methods and teaching practice as part of the curriculum.

Training institutes normally have a school of the appropriate level attached for purposes of teaching practice and demonstration. As numbers grow, especially at secondary level, this creates problems of viability, which some schools seek to obviate by extensive use of closed-circuit television.

Further training and refresher courses are provided by the universities and other training institutions, and by the National Pedagogic Institute (Országos pedagógiai intézet), which also conducts seminars and conferences during the summer months for school directors and teachers.[160]

The numbers of students in teacher training in the last two years of the relevant period are broken down as follows:[161]

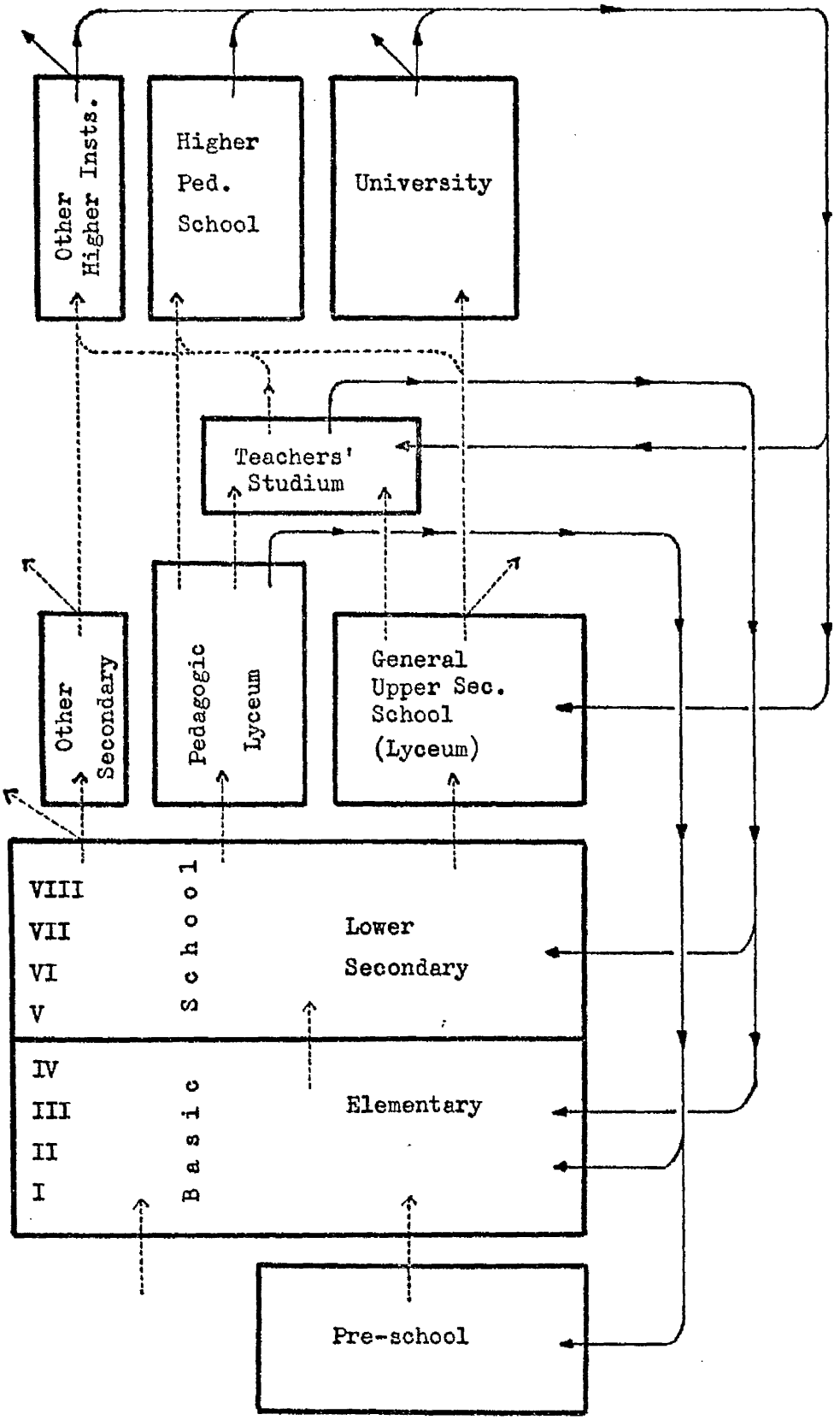
Table III. 11.

Hungary: Student teachers, 1964-1966

Institutions	No. of students		% of all students	
	1964/5	1965/6	1964/5	1965/6
Kindergarten teachers' schools	1,185	1,124	1.3	1.2
Training colleges	3,899	3,422	4.2	3.6
Ped. Institutes	11,414	11,338	12.4	12.1
Universities (arts)	7,399	7,164	8.1	7.6
Universities (science)	6,070	5,779	6.6	6.2
Total potential teachers:	29,967	28,827	32.6	30.7
Total in higher educ.	91,923	93,957	100.0	100.0

University and science students have been treated here as potential teachers, many will not enter teaching, but all will be qualified, and the great majority, especially in arts, will in fact do so. The inclusion of kindergarten teachers' schools in the category of higher education is in accordance of the Hungarian practice of entering all post-secondary education under this head.

Fig. 7 : P O L A N D - The Structure of Teacher Training



Broken arrows = into further courses
Unbroken arrows = into teaching
Oblique arrows = into other work

6. Poland

In the immediate post-war period, the structure of teacher training in Poland was confused by the extensive use of various kinds of short-term and emergency courses, designed to alleviate the immediate and serious teacher shortages. By 1948, however, the system had developed a more settled pattern and, with some modifications in 1954 and again in 1957, remained relatively stable until the mid-1960s.[162] The different types of institution were as follows:

i. Secondary teachers' schools with a five-year course. There were of two kinds: the lyceum for kindergarten teachers, and the pedagogical lyceum (liceum pedagogiczne). The latter provided teachers for the basic school, mainly (though not entirely) for the elementary classes. Teachers' schools admitted students who had completed the basic school (at that time, a seven-year school, 7-14), and provided courses parallel to the general secondary schools as far as general educational content was concerned. Until 1957, the courses were of four years' duration, but were increased to five in an attempt to raise the standard in relation to other secondary schools.[163] Most graduates of the pedagogical schools took up their teaching appointments right away, though it was possible for them to go on to higher education, full or part-time, on the same terms as graduates of other upper secondary schools. As recently as 1963, pedagogical lyceums still seemed essential for the supply of elementary teachers.[164]

ii. The Teachers' College (studium nauczycielskie) admits students who have completed upper secondary schooling (i.e. the four-year general educational lyceum) and gained the leaving certificate or matura. The course lasts for two years. These colleges train teachers for all levels of the basic school, elementary teachers and subject specialists alike. The main emphasis is on special subjects (since teachers in smaller schools in remote areas have to be able to profess at least two subjects to make the schools viable), on art, music and handwork(in which teachers are expected to have some competence, for the same reason), and on teaching practice and the usual pedagogical subjects. Since the students have already attained the matura standard, more time is given to professional training than is possible in the pedagogical lyceums, but there is still considerable doubt about the adequacy of a two-year course, especially for specialist teachers of the lower secondary stage.

iii. Specialist teachers in upper secondary schools come from two sources, the universities and the higher pedagogical schools. The higher pedagogical school (wyższa szkoła pedagogiczna) is a post-war newcomer, set up in 1946 to cope with the expansion of secondary education, which the universities by themselves could not do. The original three-year course was lengthened to four years in 1954, and again to five in 1958.[165]

Although technically on the same level, the two types of institution are widely held to differ in actual standard. University students concentrate on a single specialism, and although their

courses do include pedagogy, psychology, methods and teaching practice, these disciplines form a very minor part of the curriculum. Students in the higher pedagogical schools, on the other hand, are expected to qualify in two cognate subjects - e.g. mathematics and physics, chemistry and biology, Polish language and history. It is often said[166] that they emerge with greater professional expertise than their university counterparts, but that the university graduates have a much deeper knowledge of their subjects. At least one author[167] feels that university graduates are of a higher intellectual quality than those of the higher pedagogic schools. That this dualism raises problems is not denied; but since higher pedagogical schools are easier to establish and staff than universities, and since it is felt that to gear the universities too closely to the production of teachers would do them no good in the long run, the division is accepted as preferable to any likely scheme for unification. There has been continuing controversy on this point (leading to the closing of two of the higher pedagogical schools - Warsaw and Łódź - in 1956),[168] but the general view appears to be that the two types of institution fulfill different functions and produce different kinds of teachers, and that, for the moment at any rate, there is need for both of them in the secondary schools.

The main body of upper secondary teachers, then, is drawn from the universities (Kraków, Lublin, Łódź, Poznań, Toruń, Wrocław, Warsaw) and secondarily from the higher pedagogical schools (Katowice, Kraków, Opole, Gdańsk). A

number of other higher institutions, such as the Schools of Music in Katowice, Kraków, Łódź, Poznań, Sopot, Warsaw and Wrocław, or the Physical Education Academies of Poznań, Kraków, Warsaw and Wrocław, also produce teachers for the secondary schools.[169]

Recent developments have been concerned with the position of the pedagogical lyceums. Noting in 1963 that students in higher institutions tended to go off into other (and presumably better-paid) occupations if possible, Bogdan Suchodolski wrote that "having this in mind, Poland is not inclined to abolish pedagogical lyceums, though it is enlarging the teaching studiums." For the time being, that is, in the long run, "the authorities would like to have (all) teachers educated in higher four- to five-year establishments, especially at the universities. However, under the present circumstances they are unable to do this, as it would involve giving up mass enrolment. It can only be achieved when the secondary school system embraces all young people. Pedagogical lyceums will be eliminated step by step and pedagogical studiums will be expanded. Nevertheless, even here one must act very carefully and proceed by easy stages". Later, Suchodolski says that "there will be no radical change in the immediate future," and consigns the raising of all training to the higher level to some more remote time: "It is hoped eventually to provide all primary school teachers with university education".[170]

Certainly, the phasing out of the pedagogical lyceums must have seemed a long way off, so deeply entrenched were they in the

system: there were 138 of them in 1960-1961, producing nearly 39,000 graduates, as against 47 training colleges (studiums) with just over 11,000.[171] At the turn of the decade, graduates of these schools made up the vast majority of the teaching force in the basic schools, as the following table demonstrates:

Table III, 12.

Poland: Qualifications of Teachers, 1960-61.

Qualification	No. of teachers	% of total
pedagogical lyceum (or equivt.)	111,378	76.5
teachers' college (studium)	16,273	11.2
higher institution (level I)	4,402	3.0
higher institution (level II)	4,481	3.1
no pedagogic qualification	9,033	6.2
Total basic school teachers	145,567	100.0

Already, however, the position was changing. Despite their predominance in the late 1950s and early 1960s, the pedagogical lyceums were losing ground, a process that had actually begun as early as 1956 (see Table II, 13).[173] By the mid-1960s, not long after Suchodolski wrote, the studiums had completely overtaken the pedagogical lyceums, and it was felt that the supply of teachers from studiums (and to some extent from the higher institutions) was enough to meet present needs. Accordingly, admissions to the lyceums was halted in 1966, and the studiums began to take over completely the work of training teachers for the basic school. A comparison of the years 1964-1965 and 1965-1966 illustrates this final phase:

Table III, 13.[174]

Poland: Students in Teacher-training institutions, 1964-1966

Type of Institution	Students in year: 1964/65	1965/66	Increase Total	%
Pedagogic lyceums	47,086	40,115	-	-
(full-time)	45,129	39,381	-	-
(part-time)	1,937	1,034	-	-
Teachers' studiums	41,843	46,612	4,769	11.4
(full-time)	19,019	20,226	1,207	6.3
(evening & corr.)	20,720	23,634	2,914	14.1
(extra-mural)	2,104	2,752	648	30.8

Much of the extra burden, it can be seen, was taken up by the large expansion of part-time courses. Pedagogic lyceums for kindergarten teachers were retained, however, even increased (13,995 students in 1965-1966, an increase of 6.7% over the previous year); as an earnest of things to come, however, the pre-school departments of the studiums were also expanded. The absolute numbers are still small, compared with the lyceums (1,902 as against 13,995 in 1965-1966), but this was still an increase of 22.1 per cent.[175] Studium course remained at two years for the time being; the increase to three year, envisaged by Suchodolski, will have to wait longer.

According to the Ministry report, general teacher shortage was by this time no longer a problem in the basic schools, and in the upper secondary stage was not acute:

> The supply of teachers holding higher educational qualifications is, on the whole, adequate for the needs of the secondary school

> system. The main difficulties occur in meeting the need for teachers in mathematics, physics, foreign languages, technical activities, and the less common technical specialisations.[176]

If the quantitative problem is all but solved, however, the qualitative one is not, especially in the training of basic school teachers. As elsewhere, something can be done to alleviate this through the network of courses for the improvement of qualifications and in-service courses for practicing teachers, as have been noted in the other countries in question. Courses for the raising of qualifications continue to expand: in 1965-1966, over 39,000 teachers were enrolled in these (an increase of 10.3 per cent over the previous year). Of these, the great majority were attending courses in training colleges or technical colleges (for specialist training), but some (8,615) were following courses in higher pedagogic schools that would enable them to teach at the upper secondary level.[177]

Other types of course are, as usual, more diffuse, but include subject methods conferences, short-term courses, inter-school study-groups, seminars for school directors, local, regional and national conferences, etc. Most of this work is done through the methodological centres (part of the general administrative system) or the teachers' union. An important part, too is played by the Institute of Pedagogy (Instytut pedagogiki) in Warsaw, which acts under the Ministry in a capacity not unlike that of similar bodies in other East European countries. It is particularly active in supplying methodological advice, usually at the

request of school directors, for the conduct of experimental teaching projects. These vary enormously in standard and degree of "experimental rigour", and many of the projects come under heavy criticism as unworthy of the title of experiment at all. Methodological specialists in charge of these schemes will (sometimes) admit this, but take the view that these activities are a useful way of involving serving teachers in discussion of content, methods and school problems. This, they argue, is valuable as a continuation of training, even if the experimental results (confused as they are by the well-known Hawthorne effect) are difficult to assess in any precise manner.[178] The official figures, then, do not tell the whole story (35,000 teachers taking part in mid-year courses in 1965, 25,000 participating in some 400 summer courses in 1966).[179] In many schools, the organisational system itself, the links with outside bodies like the Institute of Pedagogy create a process of continuous training. As in many other countries, this is just as well in view of the brevity of the training of teachers for the junior classes. Definite improvements in the formal system of training (such as the hoped-for raising of all institutes to higher educational level) are much more long-term and difficult to bring about.

7. East Germany

The main teacher training institutions in East Germany are as follows:

(i) Pedagogic Schools (pädagogische Schulen). There are 16 of these, for the training of kindergarten teachers. Entry is normally from the 10th class of the 10-year general educational polytechnical secondary school (roughly the equivalent of middle secondary education in other East European countries, but rather higher), usually after a year in some kind of practical work. The course is of two years' duration, and provides further general education as well as pedagogic training.

(ii) Teacher Training Institutes (Institute für Lehrerbildung), sometimes known as pedagogic professional schools (pädagogische Fachschulen). There are 36 of these, admitting students from the 10th class, and providing a three-year course. Some students come in later, usually after some kind of trade training (40 per cent of entrants did this in 1960).[100] Student teachers are among the most numerous of students at Fachschule level, totalling over 18,000 in 1963 out of a total of 140,000 - outstripped in numbers by mechanical engineering (24,000), economics (20,000) and master foreman training (21,000), but well ahead of all other categories.[101] The course provides general education as well as professional training, and qualifies graduates as teachers of the first four forms of the 10-year school (Unterstufenlehrer).

(iii) Teachers for the upper forms of the 10-year school (Oberstufenlehrer) are trained in the six universities (Berlin, Rostock, Greifswald, Halle, Leipzig and Jena); at the Pedagogic University (Pädagogische Hochschule) of Potsdam; at the nine Pedagogic Institutes (pädagogische Institute) of Güstrow, Halle Leipzig, Dresden Karl-Marx-Stadt, Erfurt, Mühlhausen, Magdeburg and Köthen; at the German High School of Physical Education (Deutsche Hochschule für Körperkultur) of Leipzig; and at the High School of Music (Hochschule für Musik) at Weimar.[182] Students are admitted with the Abitur, the final secondary examination (taken normally at the end of the 11th class of an extended secondary school, though there are other ways), and follow a four-year course. As a rule, students are required to specialise in two teaching subjects, such as German and history, German and Russian, mathematics and physics, physics and fundamentals of industrial production. Student teachers at this level form the largest category in higher education; grouping the student of the institutes and those following university teacher courses together under the heading "pedagogics", the official figures show a total of 30,000 out of 109,000 students in higher courses of all kinds. Of these student teachers, the great majority (26,000) were studying in the four-year course as teachers of humanities or sciences for the upper classes of the ten-year schools.[183]

(iv) Teachers of special subjects in the extended secondary school (erweiterte Oberschule) - formerly forms 9.12, now 11-12, - or for other schools teaching up to Abitur standard (as do some vocational

schools, the Berufsschulen mit Abitur) come from the six universities, the Potsdam Pedagogic University, and the German High School of Physical Education. They, however, study one special subject in a five-year course. Teachers trained as Oberstufenlehrer can raise their qualifications to this level by taking a further one- or two-year full-time or 2-3 year part-time course,[184] which partly explains the surprisingly small numbers being trained specifically to teach to Abitur level (1,700 out of 30,000 student in teacher training at higher level in 1963; other potential teachers, however, were entered under separate categories, notably some 1400 potential teachers of philosphy and social sciences).[185]

As elsewhere, further courses and in-service training are provided at all levels from conferences organised by the Ministry and courses in the universities and institutes to the activities of the school pedagogic council)pädagogische Rat) and the subject-teacher groups (Zirkel der Fachlehrer), further training centres (Weiterbildungsveranstaltungen), regional pedagogic centres (pädagogische Kreiskabinette), etc. General supervision, co-ordination, planning, research, preparation and provision of methodological material, publication of books, journals, pamphlets, etc., is attended to by the German Pedagogic Central Institute (Deutsche Pädagogische Zentralinstitut - DPZI) in Berlin.

Table III 14 shows the distribution of students in training at different level, compared with other branches of the system, at the end of the period in question (1965-1966).

TABLE III. 14

EAST GERMANY : STUDENTS IN TEACHER TRAINING AT HIGHER AND FACHSCHULE LEVEL, COMPARED WITH OTHER BRANCHES , 1965 - 1966

1. Higher Education : Branch	Total	Full-Time	Part-Time
Mathematics and Science	8,032	7,599	884
Technical	27,451	19,524	5,738
Agriculture, Forestry, vet.	8,209	5,938	2,071
Medicine	13,030	13,030	-
Economics, Law, Journalism	15,249	4,572	7,386
Philosophy, Lang., Hist., etc.	2,618	1,218	239
Art	1,694	1,316	234
Physical Education	1,117	488	629
Theology	642	642	-
Teacher Training	31,102	20,205	10,868
of whom :			
Maths/Science (for 10-yr. sch.)	12,668	8,524	4,166
Langs/arts, etc. (")	12,944	8,582	4,274
Maths/Science (extd. sec)	1,454	343	751
Langs/Arts, etc. (")	631	141	520
Trade trg. tchg.	1,291	1,013	218
Maths/Science in Fachschulen	381	381	-
Special Schools	343	343	-
Pedagogy (for tchr. trg.)	536	121	415
2. Fachschulen : Branch			
Sciences	4,300	2,289	2,011
Technical	60,234	25,983	34,256
Agriculture & Forestry	12,935	5,075	7,860
Construction	15,009	2,380	12,629
Librarianship	1,497	698	799
Art	1,830	1,260	573
Physical Education	220	-	220
Teacher Training	15,788	13,093	2,695
of whom :			
Primary School Teachers	9,280	7,350	1,930
Kindergarten Teachers	3,738	3,738	-
Instructors	1,267	1,000	267
Heimerzieher	756	654	102
Others	702	311	391

(Source : Statistisches Jahrbuch der DDR, 1966, pp. 472 - 473, 475, as quoted in Bildungswesen in Osteuropa, 12/13, pp. 35-36. In section 1, a small number of other part-time students evening, etc. - are not included, hence the apparent discrepancies in the figures. The figures in section 2 have been rearranged to fit in with the scheme of the whole table.)

This is substantially the system that emerged from the 1959 School Law. The major legislation since then, the "Law on the Integrated Socialist Educational System"[187] of 1965 recast the general school system to some extent. On the training of teachers, however, it was laconic on the actual structure, though it had a good deal to say on aims, content, and the importance of continuation training and study of all kinds. Para.26, (1), states:

> The implementation of the integrated socialist educational system requires the training of state-conscious and scientifically qualified teachers in sufficient numbers. The training takes place in the universities, colleges and pedagogic institutes, teacher training institutes and pedagogical schools for kindergarten teachers.[188]

Apart from some more specific points about vocational training (and the provision that "Teachers of mathematics and natural sciences are also to be trained at the Technical University and technical colleges"[189] - VIII, 26, (3)), that is about all. The structure, at least, of teacher training has undergone no major change. Considerable reorganisation of the content of higher education, however, was set in motion at the beginning of 1966, with the publication of "Principles for the further development of teaching and research in the higher educational institutions of the German Democratic Republic".[190] These proposals envisage further centralisation of the system, with the restructuring of the scientific sides into a series of stages, reminiscent in some ways of the Yugoslav "steps", but with the addition of a basic general education stage (Grundstudium) rather like

the French année propédeutique. Eventually, this will probably involve some reshaping of the entire teacher training system; for the moment, however, the structure remains as described.

8. Bulgaria

Teacher training in Bulgaria, like the rest of the educational system, was extensively reorganised as early as 1944, with the following types of institution:

(i) Pedagogic Schools (pedagogičeski učilišta) admitted students from the progymnasium (lower secondary stage, forms V-VII) to a five-year course, and trained them as teachers of the elementary classes (I-IV) of the basic school. Kindergarten teachers could be trained there as well, or in one-year courses at the end of the upper secondary stage. Special schools for kindergarten teachers were set up in addition in 1949.[191]

(ii) Teachers' Institutes (učitelski instituti) admitted students who had completed upper secondary schooling; the course, of two years' duration, trained teachers for the progymnasium stage.

(iii) Universities, with a five-year course, trained teachers for the gymnasium (upper secondary stage - at that time, classes VIII-XII).

As early as 1946, two-year teachers' institutes for elementary teachers were also set up, thus overlapping with the pedagogic schools. In 1960-1961, following the passing of the "Law on the closer linking of the school with life and further development of the system of public education" of 1959, the courses in the teachers' institutes were lengthened to three years, the pedagogic schools ceased to admit students, and the progymnasium stage was was abolished as a separate entity and integrated with the basic school. The present structure, therefore, has taken this form:

(2) Teachers' Institutes admit students from the end of the upper secondary stage (now class XI) to a three-year course for kindergarten teachers and teachers for the elementary stage (načalen kurs) of the basic school. These institutes are officially described as "semi-higher" institutes (poluvisši instituti), along with a librarians' college and one or two others. (16,000 students in 1963).[19 2]

(ii) Higher Educational Institutions (višši učebni zavedenija) include, besides the universities, medical, technical and agricultural institutes, etc. There are 22 of them altogether, though the universities (and to a lesser extent art academies and technical institutions) are the ones concerned with teacher training. They admit students from class XI with the matura, give a five-year course, and qualify their graduates as teachers both of the lower secondary stage (sredon kurs, now classes V-VIII) or the gymnasium (upper secondary stage - goren kurs, classes IX-XI). Teacher training subjects form part of the university course, and there are powers of direction (extensively used) whereby graduates may be sent to teach anywhere for up to three years.

Bulgaria has had a high proportion of students going on to some kind of upper secondary education longer than most East European countries, and has thus been spared many of the trials of some other countries in building up a wide base at this level. This (and, perhaps, the powers of direction) may explain Bulgaria's ability to raise all teacher training to a higher or semi-higher level

when some of her neighbours have found this much more difficult. There are still some shortages of teachers, apparently; but these, according to the Vice-Minister of Education, are at the higher educational level, not in the general school system.[193]

9. Summary of developments in the post-war period

Out of all this complex variety of systems and their development, does any coherent trend emerge? There are, of course, as many variations as there are countries - more, in fact, since Yugoslavia reflects the complexities of the Eastern European area in miniature. Making due allowances for exceptions, however, one can discern several distinct and fairly consistent tendencies:

(1) There has been some movement towards simplification. This is most marked in Czechoslovakia, Bulgaria, Poland and the USSR. The main exception here is Yugoslavia, where decentralisation and the uneven rate of changes has produced an increase in complexity (rather like the Highland parish where the amalgamation of the original two churches produced a total of three). This, however, is temporary; the system in Yugoslavia seems to be moving (albeit tortuously) towards greater simplicity in the long run.

(2) There has been a general move to raise the level of teacher training, both by concentrating on post-secondary courses and by lengthening existing courses. This can be seen in Yugoslavia, with the prolongation of the teachers' schools; in the USSR, with the elimination of the teachers' institutes and the concomitant promotion of the pedagogic institutes; in Czechoslovakia, with the development of university faculties for all types of training except kindergarten teaching; in Poland, with the extension of courses in

the higher pedagogic schools; in Rumania, with the moves towards greater integration of the pedagogic institutes with the universities; in Bulgaria, with the extension of teachers' institute courses from two to three years, the training of all secondary teachers at university level, and the abolition of the separate progymnasium category. Again, there are exceptions, notably the delay in extending the two-year post-secondary courses to three years in Poland and Yugoslavia.

(3) Much less consistently, there has been a breaking down of the division between lower and upper secondary teacher training. In the Soviet Union, this has been brought about by the provision of teachers for both levels by the universities and pedagogic institutes alike; in Bulgaria, by the absorbtion of all secondary teacher training by the universities; in Czechoslovakia, by the transformation of the training colleges into university faculties; in Rumania, similar developments are under way. In Poland, though the universities and the higher pedagogical schools do run parallel this has not had the same effect, since both provide teachers, as a rule, for the upper secondary stage only; further integration, it is clear, will take some time. In Hungary, the various stages are still clearly separate, as they are in Yugoslavia. Over the area as a whole, however, the trend is apparent, and at least two of the exceptions (Yugoslavia and Poland) have the same kind of development in mind for the future.

(4) Teacher training in upper secondary schools (pedagogic schools and the like) has been reduced in importance, and abolished

in the majority of countries. Czechoslovakia has converted the last of these schools into two-year post-secondary courses for kindergarten teachers only; so has Hungary. Poland has begun to run down the pedagogical lyceums, as has Yugoslavia the teachers' schools. Bulgaria, too, has replaced pedagogic schools with three-year courses at "semi-higher" level. In some cases (e.g. Poland and Yugoslavia) this has made little difference to the age or level of academic attainment of the newly-graduated primary-school teacher (four years' upper secondary schooling plus two years' training as against five years' pedagogic school). Little difference as yet, that is; but the obvious next step is an increase in the length of the post-secondary courses, and eventually their promotion to the level of higher educational institutions. Also, the trend away from combined general secondary and pedagogic education is reasonably clear.

The outstanding exceptions here are Rumania, with its newly created pedagogic lycées, and the USSR, with its retention and even partial re-expansion of the pedagogic schools. Rumania, in education as in other things, is a frequent exception these days; in this case, one gets the impression that the pedagogic lycées were part of a package deal, the main concern of the authorities being the combination of secondary and vocational training, hitherto absent from the Rumanian system. There are some indications, not as yet conclusive, that the three-year institutes, and eventually the universities proper, will take over primary as

well as secondary training. For the moment, however, Rumania is quite unambiguously an exception to the general pattern in this respect.

The USSR is a rather different case, since the intention to abolish the poduchilishcha was quite clear, and the process had actually begun (see Table V.12). The reasons for this partial back-tracking will be examined in more detail later; for the moment, it is worth noting that there have been serious problems of teacher supply at a time when widespread expansion of the upper secondary classes has been putting an unusual strain on the other parts of the teacher training system. The abolition of the pedagogic schools has not taken place after all, and may not take place for another ten years or more. The intention, however, is still there.

The Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, then, present a picture of a teacher training structure, originally clearly divided into different levels according to the level of class taught, moving towards greater integration, with a tendency to extend the length of training and to raise the academic standard. These developments have been, and remain, variable and uneven, as policies and intentions are tempered to the hard facts of economic and manpower shortages. What actually happens during the different types of training - the content of the courses - is the concern of the next chapter.

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Chapter IV

IV 16. Yugoslavia: Pedagogic Academy, Croatia. Curricula for (1) Primary Teachers - classes I-IV of basic schools, and (2) Secondary Teachers - classes V-VIII of basic schools.

IV 17. Yugoslavia: Higher Pedagogic School, Zrenjanin, Serbia, 1966-67. Curricula for:
(1) English Language and Literature
(2) Physics and Chemistry.

IV 18. Yugoslavia: Higher Pedagogic School, Belgrade.
(1) Serbo-Croat Language and Literature of the Yugoslav peoples.
(2) Russian, English or French Language and Literature.
(3) History and Geography
(4) Geography and History
(5) Biology and Chemistry
(6) Chemistry with General Technical Education and Physics
(7) Physics with General Technical Education and Mathematics
(8) Mathematics
(9) Art

IV 19. Yugoslavia: Pedagogy, Psychology and Methods Courses in higher institutions, 1963-1964.

IV 20. Yugoslavia: University of Sarajevo - Physics Curriculum (Vocational Branch), 1965-66

IV 21. Yugoslavia: University of Sarajevo - Physics Curriculum (Teaching Branch), 1965-66

IV 22. Yugoslavia: University of Zagreb - Mathematics and Physics (Teaching) Curriculum, 1965-66

IV 23. Yugoslavia: University of Sarajevo - Curricula in English Language and Literature, 1965-66
(1) English Language and Literature + 2nd Foreign Language
(2) English Language and Literature + Philosophy or Pedagogy
(3) English Language and Literature.

IV 24. Yugoslavia: University of Sarajevo - Combined Curriculum in English Language and Literature and Pedagogy, 1965-66

IV 25. Yugoslavia: University of Sarajevo - Curricula in Pedagogy, Two-Subject Specialisms, 1965-66

IV 26. Yugoslavia: University of Sarajevo - Pedagogy Curriculum, Single-Subject Specialism, 1965-66

IV 27. Yugoslavia: University of Zagreb, Faculty of Philosophy, Zadar. Curriculum for Pedagogy as second main subject, 1965-66

IV 28. Hungary: Kindergarten Teachers' School Curriculum
(1) Before 1964-1965
(2) After 1964-1965

IV 29. Czechoslovakia: Pedagogic Faculty, Charles University, Prague, 1967-1968
(1) Pre-School Pedagogy Curriculum
(2) Special Pedagogy Curriculum

IV 30. Poland: Pedagogical Lyceum Curriculum

IV 31. Hungary: Teachers' Training College Curriculum

IV 32. Hungary: Teachers' Training College Curriculum

IV 33. Czechoslovakia: Pedagogic Faculty. Primary Teachers' Course, Core Curriculum, 1967

IV 34. Poland: Teachers' Studium, 1960. Curriculum for Pedagogic Subjects.

IV 35. Poland: Teachers' Studium - Number of Students and Classes by Special Subject, 1960-61

IV 36. Poland: Teachers' Studium - Geography Curriculum

IV 37. Poland: Teachers' Studium - Experimental Curriculum, General Subjects and Geography

IV 38. Poland: University of Kraków - Total Time for Teacher-Training Courses

IV 39. East Germany: Technische Hochschule, Karl-Marx-Stadt. Physics Teachers' Course 1966-1967

IV 40. East Germany: Technische Hochschule, Karl-Marx-Stadt. Polytechnical Teachers' Course, 1966-1967.

1. Objectives

> First and foremost comes the special subject; they must know what they are going to teach. How to teach is important too, of course, but secondary.[1]

This was said by the head of a faculty in the Higher Pedagogic School in Belgrade in 1965, but is typical of attitudes and statements that come up again and again in discussions of teacher training throughout Eastern Europe: whatever else it may be desirable for the teacher to be, he must know his subject thoroughly. Official statements, of course, go much further than that; while still stressing the importance of subject-matter, they tend to make more of other aspects as well. The statement quoted at the beginning of Chapter I is typical enough. Others emphasise the ideological factors, while not neglecting the instructional side. For instance:

> Young specialists completing the pedagogic VUZ must not only have a command of the most recent knowledge, but must also be the possessors of a high communist consciousness, well-equipped with Marxist-Leninist theory, and be skilled in the organisation of mass political and educational work.[2]

Sometimes there is additional stress on methodological competence, especially when this is felt necessary to correct undue subject-centredness among the more highly specialised teachers,

such as those graduating from Soviet universities:

> The activity of university graduates in the secondary school is shown to be successful if the young teacher has received ... not only a thorough scientific training in his special subject, but also the necessary pedagogical and methodological knowledge and ... the first skills of independent work with pupils during practice.[3]

Not only knowledge, political consciousness and teaching competence are called for, however. Enthusiasm for teaching, to the point of dedication, is expected - or at least hoped for to an extent that would be regarded as quite unrealistic even as a desideratum in most educational systems:

> The pedagogical direction of the whole educational process (in the universities) inculcates in the student the love of pedagogic work, a desire for creativity, for scientific-pedagogic research, and for the propagation of pedagogical knowledge among the population.[4]

Most of these statements of desirable qualities are made with reference to the initial training of teachers, and the constant references to sound knowledge suggest that the process is usually thought of in terms of thorough study and assimilation of the "correct" approach to the various problems. This, indeed, is borne out by

the content of the syllabuses in method, pedagogy, and allied subjects, where the emphasis, as we shall see presently, is chiefly on studying, learning and putting into practice the "best" or "right" way of doing things. But this is not enough, and is increasingly being recognised not to be enough. The importance of further courses and in-service training, as we have seen, at least discourages the idea that the teacher, once trained, is trained for all time. It is true that much of the further training consists in learning the most recent "right knowledge" and "right method" - "keeping up to date" is the favourite description of such activities, by teachers and officials alike. But in the last few years there has been increasing recognition of the need for teachers themselves to be more flexible in their approach to practical problems, and this has crept into official and semi-official statements with growing frequency. As a member of the Department of Pedagogy in the Moscow Lenin Pedagogic Institute has put it:

> In the life of every good teacher there are periods when the whole orientation of their work has to be revised ... The ability of the teacher to rearrange his work in accordance with changed demands and with regard to the individual peculiarities of the children is proof of his creative capacity.[5]

This kind of sentiment has become yet another Leitmotif in discussion of teacher training throughout Eastern Europe. It is

particularly common in Yugoslavia where, as we have seen, it has the added practical relevance in that teachers are able and even obliged to make direct choices in teaching methods, etc., to an extent not common in the area as a whole. But even in East Germany - not generally regarded as one of the more liberal of the East European countries - we find this laid down as a major objective of teacher training:

> Students are to be educated to think independently and apply scientific methods of work so that in their professional activity they strive for new perceptions and constantly increase their knowledge and ability.[6]

It is quite true that in the same educational law it is often made abundantly clear, in detail, what sort of conclusion this independent thinking is expected to reach, at least in matters of ideology or educational principle. This, to a greater or lesser degree, is true of all the countries under consideration, which makes it tempting to dismiss statements of this kind as little more than rhetoric. Even rhetoric, however, is worthy of some note. It may be a poor guide to what actually happens, but it is rather a better one to the conceptual background. The fact that something is thought worth paying lip-service to can not be wholly ignored.

Finally, we have this inventory of the qualities of the ideal teacher, taking competence in skills and subject-matter for granted:

> Real masters of pedagogics may be characterized as follows: they consider their work of supreme importance; they scrupulously and strictly analyse their own activity, daily checking their successes; they leave no details to chance and nothing is superfluous; everything serves the main purpose, which is the development of a personality. They have a profound interest in the psychology of the child, the ability to discover his peculiarity and, on the basis of the stage he has reached, to guide his future development. Such teachers adapt their work according to their educational aims and the individual peculiarities of their pupils. It is typical of them that they constantly seek to deepen and improve their knowledge and to keep abreast of the modern developments in science. Such teachers always try to improve their methods of teaching. They analyse critically every lesson and try out daring experiments in order to find better and more efficient methods. Experience becomes the source of new discoveries and a means of regulating their educational work.[7]

This is more a description of a paragon than a practical outline of educational objectives. It is not surprising that "real masters of pedagogics" are not particularly numerous - not, at least, in the terms outlined above. What is more surprising, perhaps, is the frequency with which critics in the USSR and

Eastern Europe take the training system to task for falling conspicuously short of these standards. Profiles such as this are no doubt wishful thinking in large part, but they are more than that; they are indications of the kind of objectives that have to be kept in mind. One observer, referring to wider educational issues in the USSR, has remarked, "The Russians are often quite incompetent at carrying out their ideas, but they are good at putting their finger on their objectives and needs; and the ability to identify and define problems should not be underestimated."[8]

Statements like the one quoted, numerous as they are, are certainly not descriptions of the kind of teacher the authorities expect to get, even less of the kind they do get. It is doubtful if they can even be taken, in any practical sense, as "statements of intent". But they do give some idea of the conceptual background of teacher training, some idea of the rationale behind the content and methods of the training courses. The pattern of changes since the war, and the continuing controversies, may be seen as attempts to narrow the gap between the ideal and the actual. This is a useful background against which to examine what actually happens in the various kinds of training course.

2. Curricula - the Structure of the Course

(a) The USSR

As in other schools and educational establishments in the USSR, teacher training institutions follow curricula (uchebnye plany, literally instructional plans) prescribed in some detail by the central authorities. These are drawn up by the responsible ministries (See Ch. III, 2.v.) and lay down the number of teaching hours per subject per week, the distribution of time among lectures, seminars, laboratory and practical work, the length of courses and terms, the number of internal tests, examinations, "course papers" (essays or dissertations) and, of course, state examinations. There are some departures from these plans: for one thing, there are instances where individual institutions try out ideas of their own, usually with official blessing. On the other hand, there are cases where the prescribed details are not fully implemented, without very much being done about it, beyond complaint in the press. More officially, there are areas of the curriculum in the higher institutions deliberately set aside for "courses determined by the peculiarity of the Republic or VUZ", which are elaborated either by the Republican ministries or by the academic councils (uchenye soviety) of the institutions themselves. There are also areas devoted to optional and elective courses, where the official plans do little more than suggest the kind of courses that might be offered under these headings. Finally, as we have already seen, certain of the more influential

higher institutions, such as the Herzen Institute in Leningrad, or the Lenin Pedagogic Institute in Moscow, have their own individual curricula (individual'nye plany). As an official of the RSFSR Ministry of Education put it, "They do not think much of our plans, and decide to have their own". It is clear, however, from statements in the Ministries and Institutes alike, that ministerial permission is required to construct individual plans at all, and that they have to be approved in detail when they have been drawn up.[9] Syllabuses or schemes of work (programmy) are similarly laid down in some detail, though here too some departure from the norm is possible. In this case, there appears to be rather more room for interpretation and variation at the level of the training institute than is the case with the curricula.[10]

At secondary pedagogic level, the curriculum is designed as a combination of general secondary education to the same standard as the ordinary school, and professional training. Under the current scheme (1965) for future primary school teachers, compulsory subjects take up a total of 36 teaching hours a week, an all-over total of 5,292 for the four-year course. Compulsory subjects are classified under: (1) General subjects, those studied with a view to furthering the students' personal education, rather than those specifically concerned with the training of teachers; (2) Specialist subjects, those that will be taught in the primary school, together with methods, pedagogy, psychology, etc.; (3) Physical education (with civil defence); and (4) Practical training - production practice,

teaching practice, and the like. Out of a total of 5,292 hours, over half the time (2,867 hours) is devoted to specialist subjects, and most of the rest (1,283) to general subjects. For details, see Table IV.1.[11]

Actually, it is not quite as straightforward as this. Russian language and literature, for instance, are counted as specialist subjects, and are taught together with methods, since the students will teach these in the primary school. But they are also important contributory disciplines to the personal education of the students, and are taught with this in mind, as statements of those actually teaching these subjects make perfectly clear. Contrariwise, the "general subjects", such as chemistry, social study or a foreign language, although they will not be taught in the primary school, nevertheless have obvious links with those which will - the connection between general biology and nature study is perhaps the most obvious - and, once again, are taught in the pedagogic schools with this fact in mind.

Within the "specialist" group, subjects specifically identifiable as concerned with teacher training (pedagogy, psychology, anatomy, physiology of young children, hygiene) take up a fairly small proportion of the time; this is true also of the teaching of methods, in so far as this can be disentangled from the rest of the appropriate subject allocation, though actual practice does tend to vary in this. One way and another, what emerges is a course

TABLE IV. 1

U.S.S.R. : PEDAGOGIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM, 1965 PRIMARY TEACHING (4 years)

Year	I		II		III		IV		Lec-	Prac-	Total
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	tures	tical	Hours
I. General Subjects											
1. Social Study							2	3	81		81
2. Mathematics	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	4	368		398
3. Physics with fundamentals of astronomy	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	250	44	294
4. Chemistry	3	2	3	2					164	20	194
5. Economic Geography								4	60		60
6. General biology							2	2	60	6	66
7. Foreign language	3	2	2	2					175		175
8. Fundamentals of scientific atheism								1	15		15
Total for Group I	10	8	9	9	5	5	9	16	1203	80	1283
II. Specialist Subjects											
9. Russian language, methods, writing	3	3	2	4	4	3	4	3	400	7[illegible]	470
10. Literature, general, children's, expressive reading	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	330	72	403
11. Arithmetic, with methods	4	4	4	3	2	2			320	24	344
12. Nature study, with methods		2	2	3					110	26	136
13. History, with methods	3	2	2	2	3	2			266		266
14. Anatomy & physiology of young children, hygiene	2	2							68	10	78
15. Psychology		4							60	20	80
16. Pedagogy			5	4	2	2			192	55	247
17. Singing, with methods	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	250	44	294
18. Drawing and modelling, with methods	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	254	40	294
19. Theory and method of physical educ.					2	2	1		38	52	90
20. Educational materials	1			1		1	1	4	134		134
Total for Group II	21	23	22	22	20	18	19	14	2002	945	2947
III. Physical Education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		294	294
Civil Defence							1	1	33		33
IV. Practical Training											
1. School workshop, tech. drawing, work, dig. methods	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		294	294
2. Agricultural studies, experimental plots, etc.	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		147	147
3. Technical media						2	2			70	70
4. Teaching practice					6	6	6			324	324
Total Hours	36	36	36	36	36	35	36	36	3238	2054	5292
V. Optional Subjects											
1. Choral and solo singing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		294	294
2. Physical education and sport	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		147	147
3. Dramatics and art					1	1	1	1		69	69
Selected Subjects	11	13	12	12	10	10	9	10			
Weeks per semester	19	20	19	20	19	17	18	15			
No. of oral examinations		4		4		4					12
No. of written examinations		2	(arith)			1	(lit.)				3
Total no. of examinations		6		4		5					15
Practical and Professional training										Weeks	Hours
1. Practical training in agriculture		1x36		1x36						2	72
2. Practical trg. on experimental plots	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			147
3. Technical media - practice						2	2				70
4. Practical training in school workshops	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2			294
5. Teaching practice					6	6	6				324
(a) Pioneer camp					4 x 36					4	144
(b) "First days of child at school"						1 x 36				1	36
(c) Continuous school practice							5 x 36			5	180
Hours (Grand Total)	57	63	57	66	171	331	234	225		12	1267

State examinations : (1) Social study
(2) Pedagogy and methods
(3) Russian language/composition

heavily biased towards subject content, whether the subjects themselves be classified as general or special; the educational disciplines, such as pedagogy or psychology, play a comparatively minor role so far as the allocation of time is concerned. Practical and professional training, however, is much more prominent, with an aggregate of 1,267 hours, most of them spent in teaching practice of some kind, whether in schools or Pioneer camps. Table IV.1. shows the breakdown of time by subjects; the breakdown by types of activity is as follows:

	year:	I	II	III	IV	Total
1. Theoretical instruction	(hours)	1287	1287	930	945	4457
2. Examination sessions	(weeks)	2	2	2	-	6
3. Production practice	(hours)	117	117	350	143	835
4. Instructional practice	(weeks)	1	1	"	-	2
5. Teaching practice	(weeks)	-	-	4	6	10
6. State examinations	(weeks)	"	"	"	2	2
7. Holidays	(weeks)	10	10	10	2	32

As the course advances, the balance shifts from theoretical teaching to practical training, culminating with continuous teaching practice in the second semester of the final year. (This is not fortuitous, and is only partly due to time-tabling considerations; teachers and administrators alike take the progression from theory to practice, in that order, more or less for granted, regarding the idea of generalising from experience as rather bizarre, or at least something that can be used more profitably later in the process). The other types of practical training - agricultural studies, work on experimental plots, school workshop practice, and the like, have

a twofold purpose. They are partly to enable those who will work with primary school children to teach labour training and handwork, and are also intended as part of the students' own polytechnical education. This, although reduced in time and importance since 1964, still holds a place in the secondary school curriculum.[12] Altogether, the course is a heavy one, especially when one considers the requirements of lesson preparation, reading, etc., on top of a 36-hour week, with optional studies in addition to that.

In the pre-school departments of the pedagogic schools, the design of the curriculum is somewhat different, mainly because the dividing-line between general educational and specialist subjects is more obvious. History and literature, for example, appear as general subjects; only with Russian literature and language, music and visual arts, and perhaps general science, does the overlapping of function observed in the primary curriculum obtain. The special subjects group, as might be expected, is thus more clearly biased towards training for work with young children; apart from the "educational subjects" of the usual type, such as pedagogy, psychology, anatomy, physiology and hygiene, we find speech development, development of number skills, methods of teaching music and art at pre-school level, etc. The practical subjects cover much the same ground as the primary course, with the addition of four hours a week of "home study" in the last two semesters, in which students carry out case studies of the home conditions of individual pre-school children and their effects on the children's upbringing and personalities.

TABLE IV. 2

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC SCHOOL CURRICULUM 1969. PRE-SCHOOL DEPARTMENT (3½ years)

	Year	I		II		III		IV		Lec-	Prac-	Total
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	tures	tical	Hours
I.	General Subjects											
1.	History	3	3	2	2	2				240		240
2.	Social Study						2	3	3	78		78
3.	Fundamentals of scientific atheism							1	1	16		16
4.	Economic Geography							4	4	64		64
5.	Literature (general and native)	3	3	2	3	2	2			268		268
6.	Mathematics	3	3	4	2	2	2			306		306
7.	General biology					2	2			52	16	68
8.	Physics and fundamentals of astronomy	3	3	2	2	2	3			248	40	288
9.	Foreign language	2	2	2	2					160		160
10.	Chemistry	2	2	3						98	39	157
	Total for Group I	16	15	15	11	10	11	8	8	1523	95	1618
II	Specialist Subjects											
11.	Native language, speech development	3	2	2	2	2	3	4	4	220	106	326
12.	Russian language	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	4	194	95	204
13.	Children's literature	4	2							98	20	118
14.	Anatomy, physiology, hygiene -pre. sch.					2	3	2	3	118		118
15.	General and child psychology	2	2							61	19	80
16.	Pre-school pedagogy			3	2	2	2	2	3	116	86	202
17.	Nature study and gen. science methods				2	2	3	2		55	06	161
18.	Methods of developing maths. concepts					2				33		33
19.	Singing, Music, musical upbringing	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	77	180	257
20.	Drawing, modelling and methods	2	2	2	2	2	2	1		71	170	241
21.	Methods of pre-school physical educ.			2	2					19	61	80
22.	Teaching materials	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	167		167
	Total for Group II	18	14	14	15	17	19	18	13	1239	833	2072
23.	Physical education	2	2	2	2	2	2				260	260
24.	Civil defence				1	1					34	34
25.	Practical training	2	2	2	2						160	160
26.	Home study							4	4		64	64
27.	Technical media							4	4	34	30	64
28.	Pedagogic practice		3	3	6	6	3				405	405
	Total Hours	36	36	36	36	36	36	36	35	2830	1847	4076
	Optional Subjects											
1.	Choral and solo singing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			131
2.	Physical education	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			131
3.	Choreography	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1			131
4.	Foreign language					2	2	2	2			102
	Practical Training											
1.	School workshops	2	2	2	2						160	160
2.	Home study							4	4		68	68
3.	Technical media							4	4		64	64
4.	Pedagogic practice											
	(a) without interruption of studies		3	3	6	6	3				405	405
	(b) continuous practice in pre-school estabs.							6wks/36h.			216	216
	(c) summer practice in farm pre-school						6 wks					
	No. of weeks	19	21	19	21	19	15	13	8			

Oral examinations : 12
Written examinations : 3
State examinations : (1) Social study
(2) Pre-school pedagogy.

The course is shorter than in the primary departments, lasting for three years and six months; the last two semesters are 13 and three weeks respectively in length, compared with 19 and 21 in the first two years. (See Table IV. 2.)[13] The total load is therefore less - 4,676 hours of compulsory subjects as against 5,292 in the primary department. General subjects make up 1,618 hours of the time, specialist subjects 2,072. The course is just as heavy as that in the primary department while it lasts, however - 36 hours a week except for the last brief semester, when the figure goes down to 35. Once again, reading, preparation and optional subjects are over and above this total. The breakdown by types of activity is as follows:

		Year: I	II	III	IV	Total
1. Theoretical instruction	(hours)	1297	1177	1065	479	4018
2. Examination sessions	(weeks)	2	2	2	-	6
3. Practical training	(hours)	80	80	-	94	254
4. Teaching practice	(hours)	63	183	159	-	405
5. " "	(weeks)	-	-	6	6	12
6. State examinations	(weeks)	-	-	-	2	2
7. Holidays	(weeks)	10	10	10	2	32

Once again, the emphasis on theoretical instruction in subjects content is unmistakable, though teaching practice does begin earlier and looms proportionately larger. For a break-down by subjects, see Table IV. 2. Other courses in the pedagogic schools, such as art, music or physical education, are constructed on much the same pattern.

In the pedagogic institutes, this bias towards special subject content is again quite clear. The only exception is in the course for primary school teachers - not, as we have seen, particularly common as yet. Out of a total of 3,744 hours in the four-year course, 1,068 are devoted to teaching subjects (Russian, arithmetic, history, geography, etc.), while no less than 1,522 are given over to teacher training - pedagogy, psychology, methods of all kinds. (Here, though, there must be some ambiguity, as some subjects, like music and art, are taught together with methods in unified courses.) The remainder of the time is allocated thus: 380 hours for general education of a kind not connected with primary school teaching (physical education and a foreign language); 364 to elective courses, and the rest to political subjects - history of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, Marxist-Leninist philosophy, political economy, and fundamentals of scientific communism. For details, see Table IV3[14] The breakdown of time by subject areas works out thus:

1.	Teacher training	1522 hours
2.	Political subjects	390 hours
3.	General education	380 hours
4.	Special subjects	1068 hours
5.	Electives, etc.	364 hours
	Total	3744 hours

The emphasis, quite clearly, is on teaching training - rather more than the figures indicate, as they do not include teaching practice, but instruction time only.

TABLE IV.9

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE CURRICULUM, 1968. (PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHING)

Year	I		II		III		IV		Lectures	Seminar & Practical	Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
1. History of the CPSU	3	4							50	70	120
2. Marxist-Leninist philosophy			4	3					50	70	120
3. Political economy					2	0/4			40	40	80
4. Fundamentals of scientific communism								4	42	28	70
5. Foreign language	3	3	2	2	3					240	240
6. Physical education	2	2	2	2						140	140
7. Psychology (gen. & developmental)	4	2	2						78	72	150
8. Pedagogy and history of pedagogy		2	2	2	2	0/2			80	90	170
9. Child anatomy and physiology, hygiene	4	2							84	28	112
10. Russian or mother tongue		3	3	4	3	0/2	3	4	120	246	366
11. Introduction to linguistics	2								28	10	38
12. Children's literature & elt. lit. theory						0/3	3	4	104	56	160
13. Methods of teaching Russian or native lang.				3	4	6/3			72	110	182
14. Mathematics	4	4	4	4					150	130	280
15. Arithmetic teaching methods				3	4				50	60	110
16. Fundamentals of natural science	2	2	2						80	32	112
17. Geography and regional study	2	2	2						60	52	112
18. Nature study teaching methods			3						20	38	58
19. History teaching methods						3/4			30	36	66
20. Drawing with teaching methods				2	2	0/2	2	2	70	90	160
21. Singing and music with teaching methods		2	2	2	2	0/2	2	2	60	174	234
22. Theory and method of physical educ.					4	0/2			40	60	100
23. School workshop and labour training method				3	4	0/4			40	150	190
24. Special course and elective prac. work						5/2	2	3	114	100	214
25. Course determined by conditions of republic or VUZ	4	2	2							150	150
Total	30	30	30	30	30	12/30	12	24	1462	2282	3744
No. of weeks	19	18	19	18	19	5/18	18	18			
No. of exams	2	4	3	4	3	5	-	2		23	
Tests and Papers	5	6	6	7	6	66	4	4		44	

Instructional and production practice	Semester	No. of Weeks
1. Practice in nature study and regional study	2	3
2. Practice in pioneer camps	4	6
3. Teaching practice in school	6	5
	7	19
Total		33

Elective courses (examples)

1. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist ethics
2. Fundamentals of scientific atheism
3. Foreign language
4. Physical education
5. Practical training
6. Musical instruments
7. Choral singing
8. Educational films
9. Puppet theatre
10. Choreography and rhythmics
11. Expressive reading
12. Courses recommended by departments
13. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics.

This, however, is not typical of the general run of pedagogic institute curricula, where the great bulk of the time is devoted to instruction in the special subjects which the students will teach in secondary schools. Some examples of the breakdown of current curricula should make this clear. For details, see Tables IV 4-7.[15]

1. Pedagogic Institute of Foreign Languages, Minsk. Double-language course (5 years)

1.	Teacher training	474 hours
2.	Political subjects	5[illegible]4 hours
3.	General education	140 hours
4.	Special subjects	3504 hours
5.	Electives, etc.	544 hours
	Total	[illegible]06 hours

(The time given to general education is less than usual, since the standard compulsory foreign language is, of course, absorbed in the language requirements of the special subject area.)

2. Pedagogic Institute: Mathematics and Physics (5 years)

1.	Teacher training	50[illegible] hours
2.	Political subjects	480 hours
3.	General education	380 hours
4.	Special subjects	3376 hours
	Total	4740 hours

(This course does not include time for elective subjects, though as in all others optional subjects are available as extras.)

TABLE IV. 4

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES, MINSK
DOUBLE LANGUAGE CURRICULUM, 1967

	Year	I		II		III		IV		V		Lectures/ Seminars		Total Hours
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	L	S	
1.	History of the CPSU	4	3	3								89	82	170
2.	Political economy						5	4				76	64	140
3.	Philosophy				5	3						76	64	140
4.	Scientific communism									4	3	32	38	70
5.	Fundamentals of scientific atheism									3		18	6	24
6.	Psychology		3	2								70	20	90
7.	Pedagogy			4	3							50	50	100
8.	History of Pedagogy					4						54	18	72
9.	School hygiene							1	3/			18	18	66
10.	Foreign language teaching methods							3	3/			40	36	76
11.	Introduction to linguistics			2	2							60	20	76
12.	Latin	2	2										80	80
13.	Foreign language: pract. course, phonetics	18	18	16	16	16	10	10	/10	/10	10		2100	2100
14.	Lexicology							2				30	10	40
15.	History of the language					2	2					48	20	68
16.	Grammar						5	2	4			50	64	140
17.	Theoretical phonetics						2					20	10	30
18.	Geography, history & culture of the country							2	3			40	20	60
19.	Literature of the country							2	2	2	3	60	30	110
20.	Second foreign language					9	10	7	10	10	10	100	700	800
21.	Courses determined by the republic	4	4									40	140	180
22.	Audio-visual aids and film	1							2/			20	20	40
23.	Physical education	2	2	2	2								140	140
24.	Pedagogic practice in upbringing work					2	2					10	50	60
25.	Special training	6	6	6	6							200	200	400
26.	Elective subjects, special courses, etc.								4	3	4			
	Total Hours	36	37	36	35	36	36	36	8/36	32	30	1196	4008	5206
	No. of weeks	19	18	19	17	19	18	19	7/10	11/9	12			
	Examinations	2	2	2	4	2	5	2	6	3	4			30
	Course Papers & Tests	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	5	5	1			28

Note: Some irregularities in figures are attributed to the fact that certain courses are in a transitional state.

The Institute also offers a four-year course giving qualification in one language only. This is gradually being discontinued.

TABLE IV. 5

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE CURRICULUM: MATHS/PHYSICS, 1964 (5 Years)

	Year	I		II		III		IV		V		Lectures	Seminar pract.	Total
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
1.	History of the CPSU	4	3	3								70	100	170
2.	Marxist-Leninist philosophy				4	3						50	80	130
3.	Political economy						3	2/4				40	70	110
4.	Fundamentals of scientific communism								2	2		30	40	70
5.	Psychology	2	2									54	20	74
6.	Pedagogy and history of pedagogy			2	2	2	2					80	60	140
7.	School hygiene					1						20		20
8.	Foreign language	4	4	3	2								240	240
9.	Physical education	2	2	2	2								140	140
10.	Mathematics teaching methods						3	3/3	2			48	82	130
11.	Physics teaching methods						4	2/2	3			40	100	140
12.	General physics			7	9	10	12					280	420	700
13.	Elementary mathematics	3	3		3	3	3	3/3			3	108	272	380
14.	Astronomy									3	4	70	40	110
15.	Mathematical analysis	4	6	6	6	4						240	240	480
16.	Theory of probability								3			36	18	54
17.	Analytical geometry	6	3									94	74	168
18.	Higher algebra	5	3	4								110	110	220
19.	Theory of number					3						38	18	56
20.	Theoretical mechanics							0/5	3			60	50	110
21.	Electro-radio technics							0/4	4	5		40	160	200
22.	Workshop practice		4	3								30	100	130
23.	Safety techniques		1									16	8	24
24.	Supplementary specialty					4	3	2/0	14	3	12	310	434	744
	Total Hours	30	30	30	28	30	30	12/30	30	8	24	1864	1876	4740
	No. of Weeks													
	No. of Course Papers						1		1					2
	No. of exams.	4	4	4	5	3	3	1	3	1	2			30
	No. of Tests	5	5	4	4	3	4	5	3	1	1			35

	Practice	Semester	No. Weeks
1.	Pioneer camps	6	4
2.	School practice without interruption of studies	6-7	9
3.	Continuous teaching practice	9	17
			30

Optional Subjects

1. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist ethics
2. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics
3. Physical education
4. Practice in extra-curricular work
5. Courses recommended by Departments.

TABLE IV.6

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE CURRICULUM - MATHEMATICS (4 years) 1965

	Year	I		II		III		IV		Lectures	Seminars & Practical	Total Hours
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8			
1.	History of the CPSU	3	4							60	60	120
2.	Marxist-Leninist philosophy			4	3					60	60	120
3.	Political economy					2	0/4			40	40	80
4.	Fundamentals of scientific comm.							2	2	42	28	70
5.	Psychology	2	2							54	20	74
6.	Pedagogy and its history			2	3	2	0/2			80	60	140
7.	School hygiene			1						20		20
8.	Foreign language	4	4	3	2						240	240
9.	Physical education	2	2	2	2						140	140
10.	Methods of teaching mathematics					3	3/3	2		48	82	130
11.	Elementary mathematics	3	3	3	3	3	3/3		3	126	256	380
12.	Analytical geometry	6	4							90	90	180
13.	Mathematical analysis	4	6	6	6	5				230	240	500
14.	Higher algebra	6	5							94	110	204
15.	Higher geometry			4	6					148	32	180
16.	Theory of number and fund. arith.					3	0/4			70	30	100
17.	Mathematical logic								3	48		48
18.	Mathematical machines & programming					4	2/2			36	64	100
19.	Theory of probability						0/3			38	22	60
20.	Analysis								6	64	32	96
21.	General physics			5	5	4	0/2			156	128	284
22.	Astronomy								5	56	24	80
23.	Special courses and seminars (elec.)					4	4/4	2	5	120	140	260
	Total Hours	30	30	30	30	30	12/30	6	24	1710	1678	3388
	No. of weeks	18	18	18	18	18	7/11	18	16			
	No. of course Papers						1	1			2	
	No of examinations	5	4	5	5	3	4	1	3		25	
	No. of tests	4	4	5	5	4	5	1	4		30	
	Total course work required	7	8	8	8	7	10	18	6		57	

	Practice	Semester	No. weeks
1.	Pioneer Camps	4	4
2.	School practice without interruption of studies	6	8
3.	Continuous teaching practice	8	18
	Total weeks		30

Optional Subjects

1. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist ethics
2. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics
3. Fundamentals of scientific atheism
4. Improvement of sports skills
5. Practical training in extra-curricular work
6. Courses recommended by Departments.

State examinations

1. Fundamentals of scientific communism
2. Mathematics and methods
3. Pedagogy

Elective courses (examples)

1. Technical media of teaching
2. Information theory
3. Differential equations of mathematical physics
4. Theoretical mathematics
5. History of mathematics
6. Fundamentals of modern algebra
7. Theory of surfaces
8. Nomography
9. Special functions
10. Technical drawing
11. Functional analysis

TABLE IV.7

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE CURRICULUM (RUSSIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE) 1968

	Year	I		II		III		IV		Lectures	Lab/Prac	Seminars	Total Hours
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8				
1.	History of the CPSU	3	4							60		60	120
2.	Marxist-Leninist philosophy			4	3					60		60	120
3.	Political economy					2	0/4			40		40	80
4.	Fundamentals of scientific communism							2	3	42		28	70
5.	Psychology	2	2							54	20		74
6.	Pedagogy			2	3					40	30	10	80
7.	History of pedagogy					2	0/2			40		20	60
8.	School hygiene			1						20			20
9.	Foreign language	4	4	2	2	2					240		240
10.	Physical education	2	2	2	2						140		140
11.	Introduction to linguistics	4								42		34	76
12.	Old Slavonic language	2	2							34	40		74
13.	Dialectology		2							18	18		36
14.	Historical grammar			3	2					40	46		86
15.	Contemporary Russian language			6	6	6	2/3		2	160	200	60	420
16.	History of the literary language								3	42			42
17.	Stylistics								3	12	30		42
18.	General linguistics								4	56			56
19.	Methods of teaching Russian language					3	0/2			40	40		80
20.	Methods of teaching literature					2	0/1			24	26		50
21.	Practical work in Russian language	3	3								110		110
22.	Introduction to literary theory	3								40		20	60
23.	Russian and Soviet literature	3	3	3	4	6	3/4	2	4	380	120		500
24.	Literary theory								4	28			28
25.	Foreign literature	2	2	2	3	3	2/3			230	40		270
26.	Elective courses and seminars					4	3/5	4	3	140		140	280
27.	Discriptions selected for peculiarities of republic and VUZ[a]	2	6	5	5					100	200		300
	Total	30	30	30	30	30	12/23	8	24	1742	1300	472	3514

[a] History of the mother tongue, literature, Latin, Slav language

Curriculum requirements								
No. of course papers				1		1		2
No. of examinations	3	4	2	3	3	5	3	23
No. of tests	6	6	6	6	4	3	5	36

Optional Subjects (examples)

1. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist ethics
2. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics
3. Fundamentals of scientific atheism
4. Physical education
5. Practical work in extra-scholastic activities
6. Courses recommended by chairs

Elective Subjects (examples)

1. Seminar in pedagogy or psychology
2. Logic
3. History of art
4. Special seminars and courses in literature
5. Literature of the peoples of the USSR
6. Special seminars and courses in Russian language
7. Methods of teaching Russian or mother tongue in non-Russian schools
8. History of linguistics
9. Films - audio-visual aids
10. Children's literature
11. Expressive reading, etc.

TABLE IV.7 (Cont'd)

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE CURRICULUM (RUSSIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE) 1969 (cont'd)

State examinations

1. Fundamentals of scientific communism
2. Russian Language with teaching methods
3. Russian literature
4. Pedagogy

Practice	Semesters
1. Practice in pioneer camps	4
2. School teaching methods	6-7

DISTRIBUTION OF TIME (IN WEEKS) - SUMMARY

Years	I	II	III	IV	Total
1. Theoretical instruction	37	33	32	14	116
2. Examination sessions	5	4	5	2	16
3. Practice		6	6	18	30
4. State examinations				6	6
5. Holidays	10	9	9	2	30
Total Weeks	52	52	52	44	200

3. Pedagogic Institute: Mathematics (4 years)

1.	Teacher training	364 hours
2.	Political subjects	390 hours
3.	General education	380 hours
4.	Special subjects	2212 hours
5.	Electives, etc.	260 hours
	Total	3606 hours

4. Pedagogic Institute: Russian Language and Literature (4 years)

1.	Teacher training	364 hours
2.	Political subjects	390 hours
3.	General education	380 hours
4.	Special subjects	1860 hours
5.	Electives, etc.	580 hours
	Total	3514 hours

These are all derived from the curricula in force at the end of the period under discussion (with the exception of the first, published in 1967). Teacher training includes psychology, pedagogy, history of pedagogy, teaching methods, and in some cases school hygiene and courses on the use of audio-visual aids, but not teaching practice. Political subjects have already been dealt with, though these do vary slightly; some curricula include "scientific atheism" as a specific subject, others have "history of philosophy". General education consists usually of physical education and a foreign language, both compulsory in all higher education courses. The heading "electives" includes, as well as time specifically allocated in the time-table, courses "determined by the conditions of the Republic or the Institute", and special subjects include all courses with a direct bearing on the

TABLE IV.8

U.S.S.R.: PEDAGOGIC INSTITUTE CURRICULUM (RUSSIAN LANGUAGE, LITERATURE AND HISTORY), 1958

	Years	I		II		III		IV		V	Lectures	Seminars	Total Hours
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9/10			
1.	History of the CPSU	4	3	4	2						130	190	320
2.	Political economy					2	3	4	2		80	70	150
3.	Dialectical and historical materialism							3	3	4	70	70	140
4.	Logic	2	2								44	26	70
5.	General and Developmental psychology		3	2							68	20	88
6.	Pedagogy			3	3						60	60	100
7.	History of pedagogy					4					54	18	72
8.	School hygiene				2						18	18	36
9.	Special seminar (pedagogy, psych. or methods)								2			36	36
10.	Educational films					2						36	36
11.	Foreign language	3	3	3	2							140	140
12.	Physical education	2	2	2	2							140	140
13.	Special training	3										48	48
14.	Introduction to linguistics	2	2								42	30	72
15.	Russian language	9	9	7	8	6	4	4	5		272	340	612
16.	Methods of teaching Russian language						5	3			60	40	100
17.	Practical training in expressive reading	2	2									72	72
18.	Introduction to the study of literature	3									40	20	60
19.	History of the USSR	4	5	4	4	3	3				200	100	300
20.	Fundamentals of Soviet State and Law					2	3				60	20	76
	For Specialists in Literature												
21.	Russian literature	3	3	3	3	4	5	3	3	3	356	126	482
22.	Foreign literature		2	2	2	6	7	2			224	28	252
23.	Children's literature					3					36	20	56
24.	History of Russian literary language								2		34		34
25.	Methods of teaching literature						4	2			40	30	70
26.	Special courses for Russian lang. & Lit.							4	4	5	200		200
27.	Special seminars for Russian lang. & lit.							4	4	6		200	200
28.	World History	5	5	3	3	3					250	90	240
29.	Methods of teaching history						2	1			20	10	30
	Total for specialism in literature	8	10	8	8	12	18	16	13	14	1160	510	1670
	For Specialists in History												
21.	Ancient history	4	5								90	70	160
22.	Mediaeval history			5	5						100	76	176
23.	Modern history					6	6	6	6		250	100	350
24.	Modern history of eastern countries									6	70	26	96
25.	Archaeology	2									38		38
26.	Historiography of the USSR								2	2	66		66
27.	Methods of teaching history						4	2			40	30	70
28.	Special courses and seminars for history							4	6	6	120	120	240
29.	Russian literature	2	6	3	3	3					220	50	270
30.	Foreign literature						4	3	3	3	160		160
31.	Methods of teaching literature						3	1			20	16	36
	Total for specialism in history	8	10	8	7	9	16	16	17	17	1194	488	1682
	Total hours for literature specialists	34	32	32	31	30	36	30	25	19	2424	1904	4328
	Total hours for history specialists	34	32	32	30	27	34	30	29	21	2458	1882	4340

TABLE IV.8

U.S.S.R: RUSSIAN LANG., LIT., & HIST. (2)

Year	I		II		III		IV		V			
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9/10			Total
15. Russian language (breakdown)												
a. Old Slavonic language	2	2								42	30	72
b. Historical grammar			3	2						50	40	90
c. Dialectology				2						20	14	34
d. Modern Russian language			4	4	5	4	4	6		160	256	416
Total hours for Russian language	2	2	7	8	5	4	4	5		272	340	612
21. Russian Literature (literature specialists) (Breakdown)												
a. Oral folk literature	3									38	18	56
b. Ancient Russian literature		3								38	12	50
c. 18th century literature			3							40	16	56
d. 19th century literature				3	4	5				120	60	180
e. 20th century literature							3			30		30
f. Soviety literature								3	3	80	20	100
Total hours for Russian literature	3	3	3	3	4	5	3	3	3	356	126	482
22. Foreign Literature (Lit. Specialists) - (Breakdown)												
a. Ancient literature		2								34		34
b. Mediaeval, Renaissance & 17th century literature			2							36		36
c. 18th century literature				2						34		34
d. 19th century literature					2	3				60	16	76
e. Modern literature						4	2			60	12	72
Total hours for foreign literature		2	2	2	2	7	2			224	28	252

Curriculum requirements

No. of course papers				1		1					2
No. of examinations (lit./hist.)	3	5	5/3	5	2	5/4	4/3	4	2/4		35/33
No. of tests	5/3	6/4	5/3	5	6/5	3	5/4	3	4/2		42/38

Optional Subjects	Hours in Years
1. Foreign language	140 III-IV
2. Latin	60 I-II
3. Modern Slav language	140 II-IV
4. History of art	120 IV-V
5. Fundamentals of atheism	30 I-IV
6. Practical trg. in extra-curric. work	100 I-II
7. Sports	420 I-IV
8. Shoral singing	250 I-V
9. Musical instruments	250 I-V
10. Librarianship	60 I-IV

State examinations

1. History of the CPSU
2. Russian language
3. Russian literature or history
4. Pedagogy

Teaching practice	Weeks in Years
1. Without interruption of studies	8 I, II, IV (300 hrs)
2. Practice in pioneer camps, etc.	6 III
3. With interruption of studies	8 IV
	12 V
Total	34 I-V

subject content of the students' specialisms. It is interesting to note that political subjects, in most cases, take up more time than do those specifically concerned with teacher training. It is true that this holds good only of taught courses, the time spent on teaching practice redressing the balance somewhat. Nevertheless, political courses do constitute a large (and compulsory) testimony to the seriousness with which the ideological aims mentioned at the outset of this chapter are taken by the authorities at least.

There have been some alterations in the allocations of time over the last few years, the general trend being towards proportionallyreduction of curricular time for teacher training and political subjects, and increased emphasis on special subjects. The changes, however, have not been drastic, as can be seen from a breakdown of the 1959 pedagogic institute curriculum for a five-year course in Russian language, literature and history. (See Table IV. 8.)[16]

1.	Teacher training		574 hours	
2.	Political subjects		586 hours	
3.	General education		350 hours	
4.	Special subjects		1254 hours	(common course)
		+	1670 hours	(special literature)= 2924
		or +	1682 hours	(special history) = 2936
	Total, literature sp.		4328	
	Total, history spec.		4340	

In addition to compulsory and elective or special courses, optional courses are available in extra time. These are not prescribed, nor are the number of hours or stage of the course at which

TABLE IV.9

U.S.S.R.: UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM 1964 RUSSIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

	Year	I		II		III		IV		V		Lec-	Sem. &	
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	tures	Prac.	Total
1.	History of the CPSU	4	3	3								70	100	170
2.	Marxist-Leninist philosophy				3	4						50	80	130
3.	Political economy						3	3				40	70	110
4.	Fundamentals of scientific communism							2	3			30	40	70
5.	History of philosophy								3			40		40
6.	Logic					2						30	10	40
7.	Foreign language	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3				500	500
8.	Latin	3	3										110	110
9.	Psychology					3						40	10	50
10.	Pedagogy						4					70		70
11.	Russian language teaching methods							2	2			30	30	60
12.	Literature teaching methods							2	2			30	30	60
13.	Introduction to linguistics	2	2									40	30	70
14.	General linguistics							2	2			40	10	50
15.	Old Slavonic language	2	2									30	40	70
16.	Russian dialectology				3							30	20	50
17.	History of Russian language					4	4	3				120	70	190
18.	Modern Russian language	2	4	6	6	4	4					140	310	450
19.	Practical stylistics of Russian language							4				60	10	70
20.	Introduction to study of literature	4										40	30	70
21.	Literary theory - fund. Marxist-Leninist aesthetics								3	2		60	10	70
22.	Russian oral folklore	3										40	10	50
23.	History of Russian literature		2	3	3	3	4	4	3	3		330	100	430
24.	History of foreign literature	2	2	2	2	3	4	3				300	20	320
25.	Literature of peoples of the USSR								6	3		130		130
26.	Disciplines for republic or VUZ	2	6	6	6							100	180	280
27.	Specialist disciplines			4	4	3	3	2	4	2	6	160	330	490
28.	Physical education	2	2	2	2									
	Total hours	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	10	6	2000	2840	4840
	No. of weeks	18	17	18	17	18	17	18	18	18	20			
	No. of course papers				1		1		1			3		
	No. of exams	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3		33		
	No. of tests	5	5	3	6	4	4	4	4	1	1	37		

Optional Couses (examples)

1. Fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics
2. History of the USSR
3. History of art
4. School hygiene
5. Expressive reading
6. Physical education
7. Courses recd. by dept.

Instructional and production practice	Semester	Weeks
1. Study of folklore and dialectology	1	2
2. Practice in pioneer camps	6	4
3. Teaching practice in schools	8	4
4. Teaching, library, etc. practice	9	19
Total		31

TABLE IV. 10

U.S.S.R.: UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM 1964 - MATHEMATICS

Year	I		II		III		IV		V		Lectures	Sem. & prac.	Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10			
1. History of the CPSU	4	3	3								70	100	170
2. Marxist-Leninist philosophy				3	4						50	80	130
3. Political economy						3	3				40	70	110
4. Fundamentals of scientific communism							2	3			30	40	70
5. Foreign language	3	4	4	2	2	2						300	300
6. Descriptive geometry & tech. drawing	2	2									18	52	70
7. Elements of mathematical logic	2										30		30
8. Analytical geometry	5	4									90	70	160
9. Mathematical analysis	8	9	8	8							290	280	570
10. Higher algebra	4	6	2								140	70	210
11. Differential geometry			6								70	40	110
12. Differential equations			5	5							100	70	170
13. Equations of mathematical physics							4	4			86	30	116
14. Theory of functions of complex variables					3	3					70	30	100
15. Theory of functions of simple variables					4						70		70
16. Functional analysis and integral equations						4	2				80	20	100
17. Variable calculus								3			30		30
18. Theory of probability, with elements of statistics					5						72	18	90
19. Fundamentals of geometry						3					50		50
20. Theory of number									1		30		30
21. Methods of approximate calculations					3	4	4				70	130	200
22. Calculating machines and programming							5				40	40	80
23. Theoretical mechanics				4	6						100	70	170
24. Physics				6	3	3					100	110	210
25. General science (selected topics)								5	2		100		100
26. Elective courses						8	10	14	6	2	400	260	660
27. Physical education	2	2	2	2								140	140
Total	30	30	30	30	30	30	30	39	9	2	2232	2020	4252
No. of weeks	18	17	18	17	18	17	18	11	26	18			
No. of course papers								1			1		
No. of examinations	4	3	3	4	4	5	4	4			31		
No. of tests	5	7	6	5	5	4	6	3	5		45		

Courses for teachers	Semester	Hours
Pedagogy	6	70
Methods	7	72
Elementary mathematics	8	72
Total		214

Practical Training	Semester	Weeks
Computing practice	8	6
Teaching (etc.) practice	9	22
Total		28

Optional Courses (examples)

1. Marxist-Leninist ethics
2. Marxist-Leninist aesthetics
3. Philosophical problems of natural science
4. Physical education
5. History of mathematics
6. Mathematical seminars
7. Foreign language
8. Astronomy

they may be taken usually specified. These, however, are some examples of courses suggested: fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist ethics; fundamentals of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics; (more) foreign language study; practical training in extra-curricular work; history of the USSR; history of art; expressive reading; and "courses recommended by departments" - i.e. anything else that may be both available and felt to be useful.

As we have already seen, the universities are an important source of specialist teachers for secondary schools, with about 60 per cent of their graduates going into teaching. In the absence of post-graduate training of the kind familiar in this country, teacher training now forms an integral part of most university curricula. Here, though, the time given over to pedagogy, psychology and methods is more modest than in the pedagogic institution, both absolutely and relatively, as the breakdown of two specimen current curricula can show:

1. Russian Language and Literature, University 1964. 5-year course.

1.	Teacher training	240 hours
2.	Political subjects	520 hours
3.	General education	690 hours
4.	Specialist subjects	2620 hours
5.	Electives, etc.	280 hours
	Total	4340 hours

2. Mathematics, University 1964. 5-year course.

1.	Teacher training	214 hours
2.	Political subjects	480 hours
3.	General education	440 hours
4.	Specialist subjects	2672 hours
5.	Electives, etc.	660 hours
	Total	4466 hours

The classification has been made on the same basis as with the pedagogic institutes. In the Russian language and literature curriculum, the teacher-training subjects form an integral part of the course, as in the pedagogic institutes. This is not the case with the mathematics curriculum, however, nor for other courses in the sciences; there, the teacher training element is an extra, the course for pure mathematicians totalling only 4252 hours. Significantly, it is in the humanities that the greatest proportion of graduates goes into teaching, enough apparently to justify the inclusion of teacher training as a matter of course; in the sciences, a sufficiently high proportion enters other fields to justify the provision for them of a curriculum which makes it possible to avoid such training. In either case, however, it is clear that the emphasis of the curriculum is even more biased towards specialist subjects than in the pedagogic institutes. For details, see Tables III 9, 10.[17]

This pattern shows some change when compared with the previously current plans of 1959 - a slight decrease in the time for teacher training and political subjects, a slight increase in general education. On the whole, however, the changes have not been great -

the general pattern of the curricula has, while varying in detail, reflected the same general assumptions, as can be seen when the two are set side by side:

1. University: Russian language and literature

		1964	1959
1.	Teacher training	240	262
2.	Political subjects	520	570
3.	General education	680	550
4.	Specialist subjects	2620	2062
5.	Electives, etc.	280	464
	Total	4340	3908

2. University: Mathematics

		1964	1959
1.	Teacher training	214	210
2.	Political subjects	480	510
3.	General education	440	408
4.	Specialist subjects	2672	2864
5.	Electives, etc.	660	490
	Total	4466	4482

The details are given in Tables IV 11, 12.[18]

What is immediately obvious from this analysis is the constant overwhelming emphasis on the specialist subject, the time available for it outweighing all the others put together. Indeed, since the electives can also include courses in the main subject, the specialisation can in some cases be even more marked. Whether this can fairly be described as narrow specialisation is a moot point; the range of subsidiary courses that are gathered under the general heading of, say, Russian language and literature, or history, is in fact fairly wide, and

TABLE IV.11

U.S.S.R.: UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM (RUSSIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE), 1959

	Year	I		II		III		IV		V		Lec-	Sem. &	Total
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	tures	prac.	Hours
1.	History of the CPSU	3	3	3	4							140	80	220
2.	Political economy					2	2	2	3			80	60	140
3.	Dialectical and historical materialism						4	2	2			60	80	140
4.	History of philosophy									4		70		70
5.	Logic					4						444	26	70
6.	Foreign language	4	4	4	4	4							344	344
7.	Latin			4	2								104	104
8.	Psychology					3						36	18	54
9.	Pedagogy and its history						2	4				26		88
10.	Russian language teaching methods							2	2			30	30	60
11.	Russian literature teaching methods							2	2			30	30	60
12.	Introduction to linguistics	2	2									42	20	68
13.	General linguistics									4		60	12	72
14.	Old Slavonic language			2	2							32	36	68
15.	Study of Russian Dialects				3							30	18	48
16.	History of Russian language					4	4	4				120	72	192
17.	Modern Russian language	2	3	6	6	4	4					144	280	424
18.	Practical stylistics of Russian language							4				12	44	56
19.	Introduction to literary research			4								40	32	72
20.	Lit. theory, funds. of Marxist-Leninist aesthetics									4		60	12	72
21.	Russian national folklore	3										36	18	54
22.	History of Russian literature		2	3	3	4	4	4	2	4		328	102	430
23.	Foreign literature (incl. ancient & eastern)	2	2	2	2	3	4	4				310		310
24.	Literature of peoples of the USSR						2	2	2			92		92
25.	Special elective course.			2	2	4	4	6	2	8		280	234	464
26.	Physical education			2	2								136	136
9	Total hours	16	16	32	30	32	30	36	16	24	-	2114	1794	3908
	No. of standard assessments	5	5						2				12	
	No. of course papers				1		1		1				3	
	No. of examinations		4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4			30	
	No. of tests		3	5	5	5	4	4	4	2			32	

Diploma work or state examinations

Practice	Semester	No. Weeks
1. Folklore	2	2
2. Dialects	4	2
3. Pioneer work	6	4
4. Teaching practice	7	4
5. Teaching/prod. practice	8	16
6. Libraries, archives, etc.	8	4
Total		32

Examinations

Diploma project or state exams in:

1. History of the CPSU
2. Modern Russian language
3. History of Russian literature
4. Methods of teaching Russian language and literature

Optional Courses

1. Foreign language
2. History of the USSR
3. School hygiene
4. Extra-curricular work
5. General history
6. Lexicography
7. History of Russian theatre
8. History of art
9. Greek language
10. Physical education
11. Expressive reading
12. Sanskrit

TABLE IV. 12

U.S.S.R.: UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM (MATHEMATICS) 1969. (5 years for teacher, 6½ for specialist)

	Year	I		II		III		IV		V		VI			Total
	Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			Hours
1.	History of the CPSU	3	4	3	3								120	100	220
2.	Political economy					4	3	3					80	70	150
3.	Dialectical and historical materialism							4	2	2			70	70	1140
4.	Foreign language	4	4	4	4									272	272
5.	Pedagogy and its history						2	2					70		70
6.	Elementary mathematics						2	2					36	34	70
7.	Methods of teaching mathematics							2	2				40	30	70
8.	Tech. drawing and fundamentals of descriptive geometry	3	3											102	102
9.	Astronomy			3									54		54
10.	Analytical geometry	5	6										102	86	188
11.	Mathematical analysis	6	9	8	6								284	244	528
12.	Higher algebra	6	4	2									142	66	208
13.	Differential geometry			6									82	26	108
14.	Differential equations			4	4								68	68	136
15.	Equations of mathematical physics						5	4					112	40	152
16.	Theory of functions of complex variables					3	3						68	34	102
17.	Theoretical mechanics				5	6	3						140	96	236
18.	Probability theory					3							36	18	54
19.	Differential calculus					2							36		36
20.	Physics				6	5	6						112	170	282
21.	Selected topics of theoretical physics							2	4				100		100
22.	Theory of functions of real variable & funct. analysis				2	3							86		86
23.	Foundations of geometry							4					72		72
24.	Theory of number									4			40		40
25.	Special courses and seminars (elective)						4	2	2	3	8	3	250	200	450
26.	Modern computers and programming							4	2				72	32	104
27.	Methods of approximate calculation							2	2				68		68
28.	Mathematical practical training					0	4	2						200	200
29.	Physical education	2	2	2	2									136	136
	Total hours	31	32	32	32	32	32	32	14	10	12	3	2380	2102	4482
	Curriculum requirements														
	No. of course papers							1							1
	No. of examinations	3	3	3	4	4	4	5	3	2	2	1			33
	No. of tests	3	6	5	4	3	3	3	4	1	1	1			34

Practice	Weeks	Semester
1. Computers	4	
2. Teaching practice	22	8-9
3. Production practice	30	8-9
	61	

Examinations

Either Diploma work or state examins in:

1. Dialectial and historical materialism
2. Mathematics
3. Methods of teaching mathematics

Optional Subjects

1. Physical education
2. Foreign language
3. School hygiene
4. History of mathematics
5. Mechanics of solid medium
6. Automatic regulation [illegible]
7. Fundamentals of victor and tensor analysis
8. Topology

(N.B.: Physics programme has similar teaching practice, but no education courses)
Likewise chemistry.

and the inclusion of a foreign language and physical education in all courses (the political subjects are rather a special case) is perhaps startling to anyone more accustomed to the honours degree pattern of most English universities. Nevertheless, the university course, judging from the distribution of time to the various subjects, are quite unambiguously designed to produce specialists in the various disciplines, and are concerned only to a very minor degree with training teachers of these subjects. This remains so in spite of the fact that in practice the majority will teach these subjects - a contradiction that has not yet been resolved, and which may well be inherent in the dual-purpose nature of the university curriculum.

(b) Yugoslavia

The curriculum (nastavni plan) of the Yugoslav training institutions, especially the teachers' schools and other institutions at upper secondary level, lends itself less readily to analysis of this kind. It is tempting, perhaps, to break down the teachers' school curriculum, taking account of what subjects have a direct bearing on the work the student will actually do in school, as against those included for general educational purposes, but immediately doubts begin to arise. The foreign language, for instance, would fall quite unambiguously into the general educational category, while music and art might fall into the specialist group. But in almost every other course the position is ambiguous; Serbo-Croat language and literature, and mathematics, are obviously relevant to primary school teaching, physics and chemistry and social science are not.

Yet the mother tongue and mathematics courses are not structured purely, even primarily, with a view to the needs of teaching, though naturally the ground is covered; and even subjects that are not taught in forms I-IV, like chemistry and physics, nevertheless have a bearing on those that are, like nature study as it is taught in the Yugoslav schools. The distinction is difficult to make; and when we turn to the curriculum for the kindergarten teachers' schools, we find it is almost indistinguishable from that of the teachers' schools. Hardly any of the subjects that figure here have any direct connection with kindergarten work; in this case, the distingtion between general educational and specialist subjects becomes meaningless. Both curricula are, in fact, modified and slightly trimmed versions of the gimnazija curriculum (see Table I 3), with an element of psychology, pedagogy and practical teaching instead of the bias towards either humanities or scineces found in the gimnazija. In Croatia, where there are some gimnazije with pedagogic branches fulfilling much the same function as the teachers' schools, there is even less difference. Apart from the use of the time usually set aside for seminar work and free activity fro teaching practice and methods and a certain degree of bias in some of the subjects, the curriculum is almost indistinguishable from the general one; surprisingly, there is not even a course in pedagogy. This is admittedly extreme; but the general pattern of the teachers' school curricula does suggest that their chief concern is to continue a broad general education for the students, with a modest element of specific training for teachers - more time, for example,

TABLE IV. 13

YUGOSLAVIA : TEACHERS' SCHOOL CURRICUL (SERBIA 1966-67)

Year	I	II	III	IV	V	Total
1. Serbo-Croat language and literature	4	4	4	4	2	18
2. Pedagogy			4	2	2	8
3. Psychology			2	2	2	6
4. Philosophy				2	2	4
5. Methods and practical work				5	6	11
6. Foreign language	4	3	3	2	2	14
7. History	2	3	3	3		10
8 Fundamentals of social science					2	2
9. Social organisation of S.F.R.Y					2	2
10. Geography	2	2	2	2		8
11. Mathematics	4	4	3	2	2	15
12. Physics	3	3	2			8
13. Chemistry		3	3			6
14. Biology	3	3	2			8
15. Technical education	3	2	2	2	2	10
16. Musical education	3	2	2	2	2	11
17. Art education	3	2	2	2	1	9
18. Physical and health education	3	3	3	3	4	16
19. Pre-military training				2	2	4
Total Hours	32	34	35	35	33	169

TABLE IV. 14

YUGOSLAVIA : SCHOOLS FOR KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS - CURRICULUM (SERBIA 1966-67)

Year	I	II	III	IV	V	Total
1. Serbo-Croat language and literature	4	4	4	5	5	23
2. Pedagogy			3	4	2	9
3. Psychology			3	3	2	8
4. Philosophy				2	2	4
5. Practical work				5	6	11
6. Foreign language	4	3	2	2	2	13
7. History	3	3	3			9
8. Fundamentals of social science					2	2
9. Social organisation of S.F.R.Y					2	2
10. Geography	2	2	2			7
11. Mathematics	3	3	2			8
12. Physics	3	3				6
13. Chemistry		2	2			4
14. Biology	3	3	2	2		10
15. Technical education	2	2	2	2	2	10
16. Musical education	3	2	2	2	2	11
17. Art education	2	2	2	2	1	9
18. Physical and health education	3	3	3	3	3	15
19. Pre-military training				2	2	4
Total Hours	33	32	32	34	33	164

YUGOSLAVIA : CURRICULUM FOR PEDAGOGIC BRANCH OF GIMNAZIJA (CROATIA)

	Year	I	II	III	IV	Total
I.	Social and linguistic group					
	1. Serbo-Croat language and literature	5	4	4	4	17
	2. History	3	3	3	3	12
	3. State and social organisation of Yugoslavia	2	1			3
	4. Fundamentals of political economy			2		2
	5. Sociology				2	2
	6. Psychology			2		2
	7. Logic				2	2
	8. Philosophy				2	2
	9. Art	2	2	1		5
	10. Music	2	2	1	1	6
	11. Foreign language	3	3	3	3	12
	12. Latin	3	2			4
	Total I	19	17	16	17	69
II	Mathematics-Science Group					
	1. Mathematics	4	4	4	4	16
	2. Physics	2	2	2	2	8
	3. Chemistry		2	2	2	6
	4. Biology	2	2	2		6
	5. Geography	2	2	1	2	7
	6. General technical education	1	1	1	1	4
	Total II	11	13	12	11	47
III	1. physical education	3	3	3	3	12
	2. Pre-military training			2	2	4
	Total III	3	3	5	5	16
IV	1. Seminar work					
	2. Free activity					
	Total IV	33	33	33	33	132

is given in Serbia to foreign language than to teaching methods and practical work, more to history than pedagogy, more to physics than to psychology. No only does this emerge from the pattern of the curricula - many teachers in such schools state quite definitely that they see their job as general educators first, trainers of teachers second, though often adding that a "pedagogic emphasis" is given to some subjects to an extent not apparent from the official plans. (See Tables IV 13-15).[19]

If the bias of the curricula in the upper secondary training establishment is towards general education in the broad sense, the same is not true of the institutions at higher school (viša škola) level. In the pedagogic academies, for example, there is a common core of "general studies" shared by both primary and lower secondary teachers, accounting for just under a third of total curricular time. Most of this, however, is theoretical teacher training; physchology and the various courses in pedagogy (including "didactics", the theory of method) make up the bulk of this part of the course, while the other "general" subjects, philosophy, sociology and physical education with school hygiene, are at least indirectly relevant to teacher training. The other group, "specialist subjects", is directly concerned with content and subject method. In the primary course, this means oral and written composition with children's literature, art and music, mother tongue or mathematics, with special methods, general teaching methods, and teaching practice. The secondary curriculum offers, in the "specialist" group, the student's special subject (usually, i.

in fact, a combination of two cognate subjects, such as Serbo-Croat language and history, history and geography, or mathematics and physics) with teaching methods and practical work. The balance in time allocation between subject content and subject method is not clearly set out in the curricula, but in practice is said to lean heavily towards content. The only subject that can unambiguously be described as general education as distinct from professional training - a foreign language - is optional in both primary and secondary courses. In the pedagogic academies of Croatia, then, the balance of time over the two-year course is roughly one-third to general theoretical teacher training ("generalpedagogic education", as it is sometimes unoffically called), and two-thirds to subject content and method. (See Table IV 16).[20]

In the Higher Pedagogic Schools in Serbia, where methods are distinguished from content, and where there are some subjects - usually social science and pre-military training - which can be regarded as general (or at any rate non-professional), a similar bias is apparent. In the Zrenjanin Higher Pedagogic School, for example the main subject areas in two specimen curricula may be summarised thus:

1. English language and literature:

1.	Teacher training	20%
2.	General subjects	14%
3.	Specialist subjects	66%
		100%

TABLE IV. 16

YUGOSLAVIA : PEDAGOGIC ACADEMY (CROATIA)

I. PRIMARY TEACHERS - CLASSES I - IV OF BASIC SCHOOLS

Semester		I	II	III	IV	Total
A.	General Subjects					
	1. Philosophy	2	2			4
	2. Sociology	4	2			6
	3. Pedagogy (a) General Pedagogy	2	2	2		6
	(b) History of Pedagogy			2	2	4
	(c) Didactics		4	2		6
	4. Psychology	2	2	2	2	8
	5. Physical education, school hygiene	2	2	1	1	6
	Total A	12	14	9	5	40
B.	Specialist Subjects					
	1. Methods of teaching subject, practical training	6	8	12	14	40
	2. Oral and written composition, children's literature	2	2	1	1	6
	3. Art education	2	1	1	1	5
	4. Musical education	2	1	1	1	5
	5. Mother tongue or maths, with methods and practical training	6	6	6	6	28
	Total B	18	18	23	25	84
C.	Foreign language (optional)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(8)
	Total Hours	30	32	32	30	124

II. Secondary teachers : Classes V-VIII of Basic Schools

A.	General Studies (as above)	12	14	9	5	40
B.	1. Selected subjects with methods and practical work *	16	16	21	23	76
	2. Basic methods of subject teaching	2	2	2	2	8
	Total B	18	18	23	25	84
C	Foreign language (Optional)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(8)
	Total Hours	30	32	32	30	124

* Selected Subjects

1. Serbo-Croat language and history
2. History and geography
3. Foreign languages and literature
4. Mathematics and physics
5. Biology and physics
6. General technical education and one of the natural sciences
7. Domestic science and one of the natural sciences
8. Art education
9. Music
10. Physical education.

2. Physics and Chemistry:

1. Teacher training	23%
2. General subjects	17%
3. Specialist subjects	60%
	100%

(For details, see Table IV 17.)[21]

As in the case of the USSR, "teacher training" is used here to include methods and educational theory - in this instance, courses in pedagogy and psychology. "General subjects" are sociology and pre-military training, with the addition of any ancillary courses - Serbo-Croat language and literature in the English curriculum, mathematics in the physics and chemistry curriculum.

The curricula of the Belgrade Higher Pedagogic School are constructed on similar principles, as the following specimen breakdowns show:

1. Serbo-Croat language and literature:

1. Teacher training	21%
2. General subjects	13%
3. Specialist subjects	66%
	100%

2. English language and literature:

1. Teacher training	16%
2. General subjects	9%
3. Specialist subjects	75%
	100%

3. Chemistry, physics and general technical education:

1. Teacher training	16%
2. General subjects	11%
3. Specialist subjects	72%
	100%

TABLE IV. 17

YUGOSLAVIA : HIGHER PEDAGOGIC SCHOOL (ZRENJANIN, SERBIA, 1966-67)

1. Dept. of English Language and Literature

Semester / Lecture/Seminar	1 L	1 S	2 L	2 S	3 L	3 S	4 L	4 S	Total L	Total S	Total Hours
1. English language	4	13	4	13	4	15	4	17	16	58	74
2. English literature	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	8	8	16
3. English language methods			2		2	3		4	4	7	11
4. Serbo-Croat language			1	2	1	2			2	4	6
5. Pedagogy	3	1	3	1					6	2	8
6. Psychology	3	1	3	1					6	2	8
7. Sociology	3	1							3	1	4
8. Pre-military training	2		2		2		2		8		8
Total Lectures/Seminars	17	18	17	19	11	22	8	23	55	78	
Total Hours	35		36		33		31				125

2 Dept. of Physics and Chemistry

1. Physics	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	20	20	40
2. Inorganic chemistry	5	5	5	5					10	10	20
3. Organic chemistry					5	5	5	5	10	10	20
4. Physics teaching methods			2		2	3		3	4	6	10
5. Chemistry teaching methods					2			2	2	2	4
6. Mathematics	3	2	3	2					6	4	10
7. Pedagogy	3	1	3	1					6	2	8
8. Psychology	3	1	3	1					6	2	8
9. Sociology	3	1							3	1	4
10. Pre-military training	2		2		2		2		8		8
Total Lectures/Seminars	24	15	23	14	18	13	12	15	75	57	
Total Hours	39		37		28		27				132

Departments in School

1. Serbo-Croat language and literature
   (a) for work in Serbo-Croat language schools
   (b) for work in natural minority schools
2. Russian language and literature
3. English language and literature
4. Rumanian language and literature
5. Mathematics
6. General technical education
7. Biology and nature study
8. Physical and health education
9. Musical education
10. Physics and chemistry

TABLE IV. 18

YUGOSLAVIA : PEDAGOGIC HIGHER SCHOOL, BELGRADE - CURRICULA

Semester	1		2		3		4		
	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	Total
I. Serbo-Croat language and literature of Yugoslav peoples									
1. Serbo-Croat language	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	24
2. Literature of Yugoslavia people, literary theory	6	4	6	4	6	4	6	4	40
3. Methods and teaching practice			2		2	2		2	8
4. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
5. Psychology, with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
6. Social science	3	1							4
7. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Lectures/Seminars	16	10	17	9	13	9	11	9	59 & 37
Total Hours		30		26		22		20	98
II-IV Russian, English or French language and literature									
1. Theory of language teaching with practice	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
2. General course of spoken language, with phonetics and lab.		16		16		16		16	64
3. Russian, English or French literature	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16
4. Methods and teaching practice			2		2	2		2	8
5. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
6. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
7. Social science	3	1							4
8. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Hours		34		34		30		30	150
V. History and Geography									
1. History of the peoples of Yugoslavia	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	24
2. General history	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	24
3. General and economic geography	4	1	4	1	4	1			15
4. Geography of the SFRY	2	1	2	1	2	1			9
5. History methods and teaching practice			2		2	2		2	8
6. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
7. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
8. Social science	3	1							4
9. General technical education		2		2		2		2	8
10. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Lectures/Seminars	25	9	24	8	20	8	12	6	81 & 31
Total Hours		34		32		28		18	112
VI. Geography and History									
1. General and economic geography	6	2	6	2	4	2	4	2	28
2. Geography of the SFRY					4	2	4	2	12
3. History of the peoples of Yugoslavia	4	1	4	1	4	1			15
4. General history	4	1	4	1	4	1			15
5. Geography methods and teaching practice				2	2	2		2	8
6. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
7. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
8. Social science	3	1							4
9. General technical education		2		2		2		2	8
10. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Lectures/Seminars	24	7	21	6	22	6	12	6	76 & 29
Total Hours		31		29		30		18	108

TABLE IV. 18

YUGOSLAVIA : PEDAGOGIC HIGHER SCHOOL, BELGRADE - CURRICULA (cont'd)

Semester	1		2		3		4		
	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	Total
VII. Biology and Chemistry									
1. General and invertebrate zoology	5	2	5	3					14
2. Vertebrate zoology and fundamentals of Darwinism					5	2	5	2	14
3. Human science and hygiene		3		2					5
4. Botany	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	2	24
5. Chemistry	6	4	6	4	6	4			30
6. Biology teaching methods			2		2	2		2	8
7. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
8. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
9. Social science	3	1							4
10. Agricultural instruction	1		1						2
11. Field study						6		6	12
12. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Lectures/Seminars	26	11	26	10	19	16	11	12	84 & 49
Total Hours	58		56		35		23		133
VIII Chemistry with general technical education and physics									
1. Chemistry	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	40
2. Physics	6	4	6	4	6	4			30
3. General technical education		4		4		4		4	16
4. Chemistry teaching methods and school practice			2		2	2		2	8
5. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
6. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
7. Social science	3	1							4
8. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Lectures/Seminars	24	12	23	11	19	11	11	7	77 & 41
Total Hours	36		34		30		18		118
IX. Physics with general technical education with mathematics									
1. Physics	6	4	6	4	6	4	6	4	40
2. Mathematics	6	4	6	4	6	4			30
3. General technical education		4		4		4		4	16
4. Physics teaching methods and school practice			2		2	2		2	8
5. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
6. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
7. Social science	3	1							4
8. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Lectures/Seminars	25	11	24	10	16	10	13	10	77 & 47
Total Hours	36		34		26		23		124
X. Mathematics									
1. Arithmetic and elementary algebra	3	3	3	3					12
2. Higher Algebra					3	2			5
3. Elementary geometry	3	3	3	3					12
4. Descriptive geometry					3	3	2	2	8
5. Analytical geometry					3	3	2	2	8
6. Analysis	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	32
7. Methods and teaching practice			2		2	2		2	8
8 Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
9 Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
10. Social science	3	1							4
11. Pre-military training		2		2		2		2	8
Total Seminars/Lectures	19	13	16	12	15	12	10	10	62 & 47
Total Hours	32		30		27		20		109

TABLE IV. 18

YUGOSLAVIA : HIGHER PEDAGOGIC SCHOOL, BELGRADE - CURRICULA (cont'd)

Semester	1		2		3		4		
	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	Total
XI. Art									
1. Analytical drawing	10		10		10		10		40
2. Analytical painting			5		5		10		20
3. Analytical sculpture	5		5		5		10		25
4. Fundamentals of design and applied art	10		5		5		5		25
5. Technology of materials			2		2				4
6. History of art	2		2		4				8
7. Art teaching methods and schoolpractice					3	3	2		7
8. Pedagogy	2	1	2	1					6
9. Psychology with elementary logic	2	1	2	1					6
10. Social science	3	1							4
11. Pre-military training	2		2		2		2		8
Total Lectures/Seminars									
Total Hours	39		37		36		39		153

4. History and geography:

1. Teacher training	18%
2. General subjects	18%
3. Specialist subjects	64%
	100%

For details, see Table IV 18.[22] The categories have been worked out on the same basis as the Zrenjanin examples. One or two other points have to be made, however: (1) Ancillary subjects play a smaller role than at Zrenjanin - students of foreign languages do not study Serbo-Croat, nor do students of physics and chemistry study mathematics. "General subjects" here includes mainly (once again) social science and pre-military training. General technical education, of course, figures in the chemistry and physics department, as it is one of the teaching subjects here; this is true also of the department of physics, general technical education and mathematics, for the same reason. But in some curricula it appears as a general (i.e. non-teaching) subject - in history and geography, geography and history, but not in any of the others, except that the course for teachers of biology and chemistry includes a variant in the form of agricultural training and field study. (2) All courses, naturally, include teaching methods, but one rather odd feature is that in courses with two or more special subjects, methods instruction is given only in the principal one; geography and history students have only geography methods, history and geography only history methods, biology and chemistry only biology methods, and so on. As it happens, some attempt is usually made to redress this in teaching practice, but the fact remains that considerable reliance seems to be placed

on the chances of "transfer of training". (3) Whatever variation there may be in the proportion of curricular time spent on teacher training, the actual time is constant from course to course; the same is true, for the most part, of general educational subjects too. This is not due to any calculation of the optimum absolute or relative time for any given course, but stems from the fact that these courses are mainly taught inter-departmentally, and thus follow the same pattern throughout. The area where the greatest variety can be seen is in the specialist disciplines, and this is largely decided by the departments themselves.

There is thus considerable variation from one curriculum to another. What does emerge fairly clearly, however, is (1) the entire course is narrower in scope than in the Soviet pedagogic institutes. Since the course is at most half as long, however, this is hardly surprising; as a glance at the weekly totals of the two countries will show, what time there is is fully used. (2) The bias is just as definitely towards subject content; time for teacher training courses, proportionately, varies from over 20 to under 14 per cent. The conviction of many teachers and directors of such institutions that mastery of content is their main concern is clearly reflected in the curricula themselves.

In the universities, as has been observed earlier (see Ch. III, 3, iv) it is possible to take a course with no teacher training element at all and still teach in a gimnazija at the end of it. Nevertheless, teacher training courses do exist in the universities, and students who intend

TABLE IV. 19

YUGOSLAVIA : PEDAGOGY, PSYCHOLOGY AND METHODS COURSES IN HIGHER INSTITUTIONS 1963-1964

Subject	Pedagogy		Psychology		Methods	
	Semester	hrs. per week	Semester	hrs. per week	Semester	hrs. per week
Philosophy Faculties					III	2 + 5
Ljubljana	I, II, V, VI	2	I, II	2	VII	2 + 3
Novi Sad	I	3	I	2	III, IV VII	2 + 0, 0 + 2 2 + 2
Sarajevo	VI, VII	2	"	"	VI + VII VII VIII	1 + 3 2 + 2 0 + 4
Zadar	V, VI	2 + 1	III, IV	2	"	"
Zagreb	V, VI	3	V, VI	2	"	"
Philosophy-history faculty						
Belgrade	VI, VII	2	"	"	VII	3 + 3
Philosophy faculty						
Belgrade	"	"	"	"	"	"
Science-Maths faculties						
Belgrade					III, IV	2 *
Sarajevo	III, IV	2				
Skopje	II, III	2				
Zagreb	I, II	2	I, II	2	III, IV VII, VIII	4 + 4, 0 + 4 2 + 0, 2 + 2
Technology						
Ljubljana	I, II	2			III, IV V, VIII	2 + 3 0 + 4
High School of P.E.						
Belgrade	I, II	2	I, VI	3.2	III, IV, VI VII, VIII	2, 4, 2 3, 3
Ljubljana	III	2	I, II, III V, VI	2 3		
Zagreb		2				
Higher Indust. Ped. School						
Rijeka	I II III	0 + 2 2 + 1 2 + 2	I, II	2 + 2	III IV	0 + 2 0 + 5
Music Academy						
Belgrade	I, II	2			IV + (III, IV)	2 2
Sarajevo	I, II	2				
Zagreb	V, VI	3	V, VI	3	V, VI VII, VIII	1 2
Art Academy						
Belgrade	I, II	2			II III, IV, V, VI	3 1
Ljubljana						
Zagreb	III, IV	4	I, II, III, IV	3	I, II VII, VIII	2 0

* Mathematics, physics and biology only

\+ Some courses only

to teach are encouraged to take them. The arrangements, needless to say, vary enormously from one university to another, and even from one faculty or department to another. For example, the Philosophy-History Faculty in Belgrade offers two hours a week of pedagogy in the 6th and 7th semesters and fours hours of methods in the 7th, but no psychology; the Belgrade Mathematics-Science Faculty confines itself to two hours a week of methods in the 3rd and 4th semesters, while the Philology Faculty has no education courses at all. This is admittedly an extreme case; but if we take a couple of Philosophy Faculties (which do more teacher training than other university institutions), we find that in pedagogy, Ljubljana has two hours a week in the 1st and 2nd semesters, Novi Sad only in the 1st; and in methods, Ljubljana has seven hours a week in the 3rd semester and five in the 7th, while Novi Sad has two in the 3rd, two in the 4th, and four in the 7th. Just how different the provision can be can be seen from Table IV 19, a comparative summary of teacher training courses in all higher institutions in 1963-1964, when a general study was conducted by the Yugoslav Foundation for Educational Research.[23] We are a long way from the centrally prescribed uchebnye plany of the USSR.

Needless to say, there are further complications. The University of Sarajevo, for instance, offers two main types of courses in physics. The vocational branch (stručni smjer) is intended for those aiming at research work, work in industry, academic lecturing - anythin but school teaching, in fact. (See Table IV 20)[24]. Taking this variant does notpredude entering teaching after all - many, in fact, do so, if

only faute de mieux - but it is obviously not designed with future teachers in mind, and therefore has not teacher training element whatever. The other course, the teaching branch (nastavnički smjer), takes up nearly the same amount of time over the four-year period, but substitutes for some of the more specialist courses a rather modest allotment of time for physics teaching methods (with practice), peagogy and psychology, from the 5th semester onwards. This is for students taking the full "two-level" (i.e. four-year) course; it has already been noted, however, that many Yugoslav faculties arrange their courses in such a way that the first two years or so can be detached to form a self-contained "first-level" course. In this case, two auxiliary subjects are dropped from the second year (Mathematical Analysis II and Classical Mechanics), and are replaced by a roughly equivalent block of methods, pedagogy and psychology. This, at least, is how it looks on the time-table; in practice, first-level students take such courses in the second year instead of the third or fourth, sitting in with students who are taking the full course. (See Table IV 21)[25]. Zagreb (see Table IV 22)[26] has a similar but somewhat simpler plan. The often wild variety of arrangements and availability of these courses depends more on practicability of staff than on anything that could be called curriculum design.

This is only one pattern, as can be seen from Table IV 21. The vocational/teaching alternative is fairly common in the sciences, though some of the complications are avoided by the single expedient of offering no separate first-level courses. It is hard to avoid the

TABLE IV. 20

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO - PHYSICS (VOCATIONAL BRANCH)

Semester	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Introduction to mathematical analysis	2+2	2+2						
Mathematical analysis I	4+4	4+4						
General Physics I, II, III, IV	4+2	4+2	4+2	3+1				
Elementary physics practical I, II, III		0+4	0+4	0+4				
Fundamentals of physical technology	2+4	0+4						
Physical measurement	2+0	2+0	2+0					
Mathematical analysis II			4+4	4+4				
Classical mechanics			2+2	2+2				
Social science			2+0	2+0				
Mathematical analysis III					2+2	2+2		
Statistical physics					2+2			
Theory of electromagnetic fields					2+2	2+2		
Electronics					3+2	3+2		
General chemistry						2+2		
Optional subject I					4	4		
Higher physics practical					0+4	0+2		
Quantum theory						2+2	2+2	
Theory of relativity							2+2	
Optional subject II							4	4
Optional subject III							4	
Electronics practical							0+4	0+4
History of physics							2+0	2+0
Seminar							0+2	0+2
Diploma project								0+10
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Physical education	0+2	0+2						
Total	18+14	18+18	16+12	13+11	9+16	11+13	6+18	2+20

TABLE IV. 21

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO - PHYSICS (TEACHING BRANCH)

Semester	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Introduction to mathematical analysis	2+2	2+2						
Mathematical analysis I	4+4	4+4						
General physics I, II, III, IV	4+2	4+2	4+2	3+1				
Elementary physics practical I, II, III		0+4	0+4	0+4				
Fundamentals of physical technology	2+1	0+1						
Physical measurement	2+0	2+0	2+0					
Mathematical analysis II			4+4	4+4 *				
Classical mechanics			3+2	2+2				
Social science			2+0	2+0				
Statistical physics					2+2			
Theory of electromagnetic fields					2+2	2+2		
Electronics					3+2	3+2		
General chemistry						2+2		
Higher physics practical					0+4	0+4		
Experimental physics teaching practice					0+4	0+4		
Pedagogy and psychology					2+1	2+1		
Quantum theory						2+2	2+2	
Theory of relativity							2+2	
Optional subject							4	4
History of physics							2+0	2+0
Electronics practical							0+4	
Physics teaching methods, II							2+2	2+2
Seminar							0+2	0+2
Diploma project								0+10
Physical education	0+2	0+2						
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Total	16+14	14+18	16+12	13+11	9+15	11+17	8+16	4+10

* Alternative for students in first-level course :

Methods of teaching mathematics			2+2	2+2				
Methods of teaching physics			2+2					
Pedagogy and psychology			2+1	2+1				
Total	16+14	14+18	16+11	11+13				

Other science curricula:

(1) Chemistry (teaching branch) No first-level alternatives. Pedagogy and psychology in VI-VII (2+1). Chemistry teaching methods in VII (3+3).

(2) Chemistry and technology No first-level alternatives. No pedagogy or methods.

(3) Biology. No first-level alternatives. Pedagogy and psychology in V-VI (2+1), biology teaching methods in VII-VIII (2+2).

(4) Geography and geology No first-level alternatives. "Methods of teaching geography with practical work" in VII-VIII (2+1). "Fundamentals of pedagogy with psychology", in V-VI (2+0)

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF ZAGREB - MATHEMATICS AND PHYSICS (TEACHING)
I : 1st Level Course - Years I and II

Semester	I	II	III	IV
Mathematical analysis	3+2	3+2	3+2	3+2
Analytical geometry - linear algebra	3+2	3+2		
Elementary mathematics			2+2	2+2
Physics	3+0	4+0	3+0	4+0
Physics practical	0+3	0+2	0+7	0+6
Pedagogy and didactics	2+0	2+0		
Methods of teaching mathematics			2+0	
Methods of teaching physics			2+0	
Practical in methods - didactics (mathe)				0+3
Practical in methods - didactics (physics)				0+3
Practical in experimental physics teaching				0+2
Sociology			2+0	2+0
Sociology seminar			0+1	0+1
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0
Total	13+7	14+8	16+12	15+19

The 1st level course is complete in itself, carrying the award of a first degree.
Two 2nd level courses, however, are arranged to follow on from it
(a) Mathematics and descriptive geometry (b) Mathematics and physics.

II. 2nd level Course - Years III and IV

Semester	V	VI	VII	VIII
Theory of number	2+1	2+1		
Algebra	3+2	3+2		
Mathematical analysis	3+2	3+2		
Elements of geometry			3+2	3+2
Statistics			2+2	2+2
Mathematics seminar			0+2	0+2
History of mathematics			2+0	2+0
Theoretical mechanics	3+2	3+2		
Theoretical physics			3+0	3+0
Theoretical physics practical			0+2	0+2
Experimental physics practical	0+4	0+4		
Elements of astrophysics	2+0			
Methods of teaching mathematics			2+0	0+3
Methods of teaching physics			2+0	
Political economy	2+1	2+1		
Total	15+12	13+12	14+8	10+11

Plus Diploma work in year IV on methods of teaching mathematics (time unspecified)

impression that, in the science curricula at least, teacher-training courses are fitted in as and when the faculties can manage it. Since most science students, there as elsewhere, expect to become scientists, and since not having taken any of these courses is no bar to teaching anyway, the rather peripheral role of education subjects is not altogether surprising.

Students of the humanities, on the assumption that they are much more likely to become teachers, receive much more exposure to teacher training courses, though here again the position is far from regular. The University of Sarajevo, for instance, offers four separate curricula for specialists in English:

(i) English language and literature with a second foreign language (German, French or Russian). The bulk of the time is devoted to English, which is studied throughout the four-year period. The second language is taken only in the first two years, teacher training subjects making a minor appearance for part of the second two years. (See Table IV 23 i)

(ii) English language and literature with pedagogy, another four-year course. In spite of the title, this is substantially the same as (i), without the second language; the amount of pedagogy, certainly, is no greater. (See Table IV 23 ii).

(iii) English language and literature. Again, the title is misleading; there is just as much pedagogy and method as in (i) and (ii). What there is less of (marginally) is English language and literature, due to the squeezing of the course into three years instead of four. (See Table IV 23 iii)[27]

TABLE IV. 28

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO CURRICULA IN ENGLISH LANG & LIT. 1965-66

(i) English Language & Literature + 2nd foreign Language

Semester	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
English Language	3+3	3+3	2+3	2+2	1+2	1+2	1+	1+
English literature	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2
History of the English language						2+2	2+2	
German, French or Russian language	4+2	4+2	4+2	4+2				
Serbo-Croat language				0+2	0+2			
Pedagogy					2+1	2+1		
Social Science					2+0	2+0		
Methods						1+2	1+2	
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Total	11+17	11+17	11+17	10+18	9+18	10+15	6+15	3+15

(ii) English Language & Literature + Philosophy or Pedagogy

English language	3+3	3+3	2+3	2+2	1+2	1+2	1+2	1+2
English literature	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2
History of the English language					2+2	2+2		
Social science					2+0	2+0		
Serbo-Croat language				0+2	0+2			
Pedagogy					2+1	2+1		
Methods						1+2	1+2	
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Total	7+11	7+11	6+11	6+12	9+15	10+15	4+14	3+15

(iii) English Language and Literature

English language	3+11	3+11	2+12	2+12	2+2	2+2		
English literature	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2		
History of the English language					2+2	2+2		
Serbo-Croat language				0+2	0+2			
Pedagogy	2+1	2+1						
Social science	2+0	2+0						
Methods				1+2	1+2			
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0			
Total	11+16	11+16	6+16	7+20	7+18	6+14		

TABLE IV. 24

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO - COMBINED CURRICULUM IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE AND PEDAGOGY (1956-60)

Semester	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
English language	3+2	3+3	2+3	2+2	1+0	1+0	1+	1+
English literature	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+4	2+4	2+4	2+4
History of English language					2+2	2+2		
Social science					2+0	2+0		
Serbo-Croat language				0+2	0+2			
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Pedagogy	3+2	3+2	2+1	2+1	2+1	2+1		
Didactics		2+2	2+2					
Methods						1+2	1+2	
General psychology	2+1	2+1						
Educational psychology			2+1	2+1				
Social psychology		2+1	2+0					
Adolescent psychology		2+0						
Total	12+14	18+17	14+16	10+15	9+15	10+15	4+15	3+13

(iv) English language and literature, and pedagogy (combined curriculum.) This is the heaviest course of all. The time for English literature and language is the same as in (1) and (2); so is the time for the general subjects, Serbo-Croat, social science and pre-military training (these are constant throughout). But there is far more time for the education courses, notably pedagogy. Didactics (theory of method) appears as well as method, while psychology, absent as a separate subject from courses (i) - (iii), is represented by distinct ciurses in general, educational, social and adolescent psychology. (See Table IV 24).[28]

In this welter of courses, the treatment of English hardly varies, with the minor exception of (iii); but the difference between (iv) and the rest in the seriousness of the education element is enormous. It is odd that such extreme differences are found in courses aimed at the same qualification, namely teaching in gimnazije. In practice, however, it does not always work out like this; intending teachers will usually elect for (i), (ii) or (iii). The more demanding 4th course is generally taken either by the particularly enthusiastic (reported to be as uncommon there as anywhere else), or by those with their eyes on posts as lecturers or methods tutors in universities or other higher institutions.[29]

This combined course is one type of two-subject specialism in pedagogy which, with minor variations, can be fitted together with French, German, Turkish, Arabic or philosophy (see Table IV 25 ii). Another type, however, is even more demanding on the education side

(see Table IV 25 i).[30] Not only does it include more psychology, but pedagogy is extended even further - general pedagogy throughout the four years, history of pedagogy in the first year as well, didactics for a year and a half, and rather more methods work than the other curricula attempt. This can be combined with other subjects as well - English, French, German, Russian, history of the peoples of Yugoslavia, general history, or philosophy. This time, however, these subjects play a relatively minor role; only language courses are given in this case, for instance, not literature. In short, the two types of two-subject specialism allow for some degree of bias towards either the education courses or the special subjects, according to preference.

Finally, there is a course devoted entirely to teacher-training subjects, the single-subject specialism in pedagogy, which concentrates on psychology, pedagogy, didactics, methods and philosophy over a four-year course. (See Table IV 26)[31] This, as one might expect, is not a general teaching qualification for secondary (and still less for elementary) school work at all; though by no means a sine qua non, it is intended as a training in pedagogy or psychology for specialists in the various institutions of teacher training.

As a final example, let us consider the University of Zagreb, which provides courses in the humanities both in Zagreb itself and in the Faculty of Philosophy at Zadar. As one might expect by this time, arrangements differ even between these two faculties. In Zagreb itself, there are 17 subjects groups, thus:

TABLE IV. 25

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO

PEDAGOGY CURRICULA - TWO-SUBJECT SPECIALISMS

(i)

Year	I		II		III		IV	
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
General pedagogy	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2
History of pedagogy	3+1	3+1						
Didactics			2+2	2+2	2+2			
Methods					2+2	2+2	2+2	
						2+2	2+2	
General psychology	2+1	2+1						
Educational psychology				2+2	2+2			
Adolescent psychology					2+0	2+0		
Social psychology					2+0	2+0		
Social science	2+0	2+0						
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Total	11+4	11+4	6+4	8+6	12+8	10+6	6+6	2+2
	15	15	10	14	20	16	12	4

Plus one of the following : (1) History of the peoples of Yugoslavia (2) General History (3) French language (4) English language (5) German language (6) Russian language (7) Philosophy

(ii)

Year	I		II		III		IV	
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
General pedagogy	3+2	3+2	2+1	2+1				
Didactics		2+2	2+2					
General psychology	2+1	2+1						
Educational psychology			2+1	2+2				
Social psychology		2+1	2+0					
Adolescent psychology		2+0						
Total	5+3	11+6	8+4	4+2				
	8	17	12	6				

Plus one of the following : (1) French language and literature (2) English language and literature. (3) German language and literature (4) Turkish language and literature (5) Arabic language and literature (6) Philosophy.

TABLE IV. 23

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF SARAJEVO

PEDAGOGY CURRICULUM - SINGLE-SUBJECT SPECIALISM

Year	I		II		III		IV	
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
General pedagogy	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+2
History of pedagogy	2+2	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+2	2+2		
Didactics			2+2	2+2	2+2			
Methods			2+2	2+2	2+4	2+6	2+2	
							2+3	2+3
Pre-School psychology				2+2	2+2			
General psychology	2+1	2+1						
Educational psychology			2+2	2+2				
Child psychology			2+0	2+0				
Adolescent psychology					2+0	2+0		
Social psychology					2+0	2+0		
History of philosophy	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Logic	2+0	2+0						
Social science	2+0	2+0						
Pre-military training	2+0	2+0	2+0	2+0				
Total	16+5	15+3	16+6	18+10	14+12	10+8	7+7	2+6
	20	19	24	28	26	18	14	10

1. Philosophy
2. Pedagogy
3. Psychology
4. History
5. History of art
6. Archaeology
7. Ethnology
8. Yugoslav languages and literatures
9. Slavonic languages and literatures
10. Romance studies or Italian studies
11. English studies or German studies
12. Classical philogy
13. Comparative literature
14. General linguistics
15. Indian studies
16. Sociology
17. Phonetics

Students generally select two of these groups, a major and a minor. The combinations are not unlimited, of course; time-tabling as well as logical considerations can get in the way. Pedagogy, for instance, cannot be combined with Indian studies or archaeology as minor subjects, which is hardly remarkable; oddly, though, while one can take psychology as a major and pedagogy as a minor, this can not be done the other way round. Under the 1965-1966 regulations, pedagogy as a major subject can be taken with English, German, French or Russian, general linguistics, sociology or phonetics; psychology can be combined with these same languages, or with pedagogy, general linguistics or sociology. Pedagogy can appear as a minor subject in other combinations, but this is surprisingly uncommon; more usual is the combination of (say) Yugoslav languages and literatures with English or German; or Russian with Yugoslav languages and literatures, English, French, etc., while teacher training courses (as opposed to pedagogy even as a minor subject) make the kind of marginal appearance already noted in some of the courses at Sarajevo.[32]

In Zadar, the range of courses is somewhat narrower. Pedagogy is available as a second main subject (see Table IV 27).[33] Once again, however, this leads largely to a qualification for specialists; for intending teachers, education courses are much more modest - two hours of lectures a week in psychology in the second or third year, depending on the course; one tutorial and two lectures a week on pedagogy and didactics in the third or fourth year; and in methods, three lectures a week for one semester, two seminars a week for the other, in the fourth year. These courses are fitted into the following curricula:

1. History (single-subject specialism)
2. History (major subject in a two-subject specialism)
3. Archaeology (major), without the methods
4. Latin language and literature (major), without the methods
5. Serbo-Croat language and literature (single-subject specialism)
6. Serbo-Croat language and literature (minor)
7. Russian language and literature (major)
8. French language and literature
9. Italian language and literature (major)
10. English language and literature (major)
11. German language and literature (major)

This leaves the following courses with no education element:

1. Philosophy (major). (Philosophy is a school subject in gimnazije.)
2. History (minor)
3. History of art (minor)
4. Archaeology (minor)
5. Latin language and literature (minor)
6. Greek language and literature (minor)
7. Serbo-Croat language and literature (minor, where Russian is the major)
8. Russian language and literature (minor)
9. French language and literature (minor)
10. Italian language and literature (minor)
11. English language and literature (minor)
12. German language and literature (minor)

TABLE IV 27

YUGOSLAVIA : UNIVERSITY OF ZAGREB (PHILOSOPHY FACULTY, ZADAR)
CURRICULUM FOR PEDAGOGY AS 2nd MAIN SUBJECT

Year	I		II		III	
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6
Introduction to pedagogy	2+1	2+1				
General pedagogy			2+1	2+3	2+2	2+2
History of pedagogy	2+1	2+1				
Development and educational psychology			2+1	2+1		
Didactics	2+2	2+2	2+2	2+0		
Methods					2+0	2+0
Practical work in methods					0+2	0+2
Total	6+3	6+3	6+4	6+2	4+4	4+4

This course may be taken in combination with any one of the following :

1. English
2. German
3. French
4. Russian
5. General linguistics
6. Sociology
7. Phonetics
8. Psychology

This means, in effect, that the education courses are generally attached to the major subject; and since the commonest groupings are two foreign languages, or Serbo-Croat plus a foreign language, or history plus Serbo-Croat or a foreign language, most students do in fact gain some exposure to pedagogy, psychology and didactics. What they do miss is specific methods tuition in the minor subject as a rule; and in certain combinations (e.g. philosophy as a major plus almost anything except Serbo-Croat as a minor) they have no education courses at all.[34]

The foregoing data were taken from a single year at the end of the period considered in this survey (1965-1966), and it is worth noting that the arrangements from year to year are as liable to change as from place to place. A great deal depends on convenience of time-tabling, and also on the availability of staff which, naturally, affects most severely the more specialist areas of the course. Comparative education, for example, is taught at Zagreb by Dr. Dragutin Franković, who can usually manage two hours a week for lectures and another two for seminars; but he also runs the Yugoslav Foundation for Educational Research in Belgrade, and his duties there involve a good deal of time either travelling abroad or being closeted in government commissions.[35] The two tasks are not always easy to reconcile, and the planning of curricula becomes accordingly more difficult. This is, to be sure, an extreme case, but considerations of this kind affect most of the special areas, since adequately trained people are in short supply in a country of Yugoslavia's size and state of development. Only the most general courses, therefore, can be arranged with any great confidence of permanency.

It can be seen, then, that the role of the universities in the training of teachers is so variable as to make generalisation about the curricula almost impossible, except in a rather negative sense. As elsewhere, the emphasis in university courses is overwhelmingly on special subject content, while the education courses play a small role if they play any at all. There are some advantages, it is sometimes argued, in the absence of a central plan, and certainly many of the courses do show a degree of originality and flexibility seldom noticeable in the university education courses in the USSR. On the other hand, the allocation of time is seldom generous enough to take advantage of this, while the organisation of courses frequently becomes quite arbitrary. At any rate, the position of education courses in the Yugoslav universities is regarded with considerable dissatisfaction by the teachers and the taught alike.[36]

(c) The other East European Countries - some specimen curricula

i. Pre-school teachers

With the temporary exception of Poland, the only country with pedagogic schools (at upper secondary level) for the training of kindergarten and elementary school teachers is Rumania. Unfortunately the curricula for the pedagogic lycées set up by the 1966 law on the establishment of specialist lycées are not available; according to less detailed reports,[37] they resemble the Soviet peduchilishcha in content (though that is not how Rumanian informants put it) in that they provide general secondary courses, somewhat narrower than the general

educational lycees, with the addition of methods, psychology, pedagogy and school hygiene. In Czechoslovakia, as we have seen, the teachers' schools now provide two-year kindergarten training courses only, for students who have completed general secondary schooling.[38] Thus, in most of the remainder of the East European area, pre-school as well as elementary school teachers are trained at the higher or at least post-secondary level.

Hungary furnishes an example of post-secondary short courses for teachers of this type in the two-year kindergarten teachers' schools (óvónőképző iskolák). (Although all post-secondary colleges are classified as higher institutions in Hungary, these are not at the same level as, say, the pre-school courses in the Czech universities.) The curricula in these schools were changed in 1964-1965, with the introduction of anatomy and physiology and general methods, plus some minor alterations of the balance of time allocated to the various disciplines (more Marxism-Leninism, less psychology, more music and singing, less drawing and handwork, more theory of education and less history of education, etc., and a very slight reduction in the total load.) Both before and after the change the bias is overwhelmingly vocational. Counting the mother tongue as part of the vocational element (arguably, it is true), general studies such as political courses and Russian take up less than one-sixth of the total. The two curricula are shown in Table IV 28.[39]

TABLE IV. 28

HUNGARY : KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS' SCHOOL CURRICULUM

1. Before 1964-1965

Semester	1	2	3	4
Marxism-Leninism	3	3	3	3
Russian language	3	2	2	
Psychology	3	3	2	2
Logic	2			
Theory of education	4	3		
History of pedagogy			2	2
General culture				2
Mother tongue	3	2		
Literature for children - young people	2	2		
Kindergarten	3			
Kindergarten organisation and activities		3	4	2
Singing and singing methods	3	3	2	3
Drawing and handwork, with methods	3	3	2	4
Physical education and methods	2	2	2	2
Teaching practice	3	5	10	5
Organisation of kindergarten work				1
Total Hours weekly	32	31	29	35

2. After 1964-1965

Semester	1	2	3	4
Marxism-Leninism	4	3	3	3
Russian language	2	2	2	
Psychology	2	3	3	2
Logic	2			
Theory of education	4	4		
History of pedagogy - kindergarten org.				3
Mother tongue and literature	4	2		3
Human anatomy and physiology	2			
Kindergarten hygiene			2	
Methods	4	6		
Singing and Music	3	3	4	4
Drawing and handwork	2	2	2	1
	1			
Physical education	2	2	2	2
Teaching practice		5	10	6
Total Hours weekly	32	32	33	33

TABLE IV 22

CZECHOSLOVAKIA : PEDAGOGIC FACULTY, CHARLES UNIVERSITY, PRAGUE, 1967 - 1968

PRE-SCHOOL PEDAGOGY CURRICULUM

Year	I				II				III			
Semester	1		2		3		4		5		6	
Child biology and health care	8	4										
Introduction to pedagogy, with logic	9											
History of pre-school pedagogy	5	2	6	3								
General psychology	9											
Developmental psychology	8	2	9		7	10						
Social psychology							6	3	6	3		
Educational psychology									1	7	8	1
Pre-school pedagogy, with seminar					10	4	8	3	8	9	2	1
Mother tongue methods, children's lit.	10	3			3	3						
Physical education methods						8						
Art education methods						8						
Music education methods										8		
Work education methods										8		
Modern aids practice, pre-school organis.										2	8	
Total	59		18		52		18		52		10	

SPECIAL PEDAGOGY (combined with pre-school pedagogy)

Intro. to study of special pedagogy	2											
Terminology	4											
Somatopathology	24											
physiology	6											
Pathophysiology	8											
Basic child neurology & psychiatry	10											
Special psychology of defective children			8	4								
School hygiene for defective children	4											
Fundamentals of phonetics			4	2								
Special defective pedagogy					8	4						
History of care of the defective					2							
Organisation of social schools - institutions					2							
Social care of deprived children							2					
Methods of speech development									10	6	2	4
Special pedagogy (psychological)					6		4		28	10	4	8
Special pedagogy (logopedia)					6		4		26	10	4	8
Special pedagogy (optopedia)					6		4		26	10	4	8
Special pedagogy (somatopedia)					6		4		26	10	4	8
Total	56		18		40		18		60		54	

Totals are for semesters, not weeks.

In Czechoslovakia, while the upper secondary teachers' schools have been converted into two-year post-secondary courses, there has been a further development. With the conversion of the teacher training institutes into pedagogic faculties, courses in pre-school pedagogy have developed within the universities. These last for three years, and may be combined with special pedagogy for teachers of children suffering from physical or mental defects. The curricula for these courses in the Charles University of Prague are shown in Table IV 29.[40]

ii Elementary school teachers

The Polish pedagogical lyceum can be taken as an example of elementary teacher training at the upper secondary level. Like others of its type, it is fundamentally a variant of the general upper secondary school - in this case, the general educational lyceum. Since the course is of five years' duration instead of the general school's four, little trimming is required to make up the time necessary for the teacher training element, extra art and music courses, etc. At first glance, the bias is heavily in favour of general subjects, which account for approximately 68 per cent of the total time (not counting the options), compared with 20 per cent for art, music and practical work, and only 12 per cent for the education courses. Actually, the distribution is rather more difficult to assess, since although general teaching methods are separately entered under the teacher training courses, methods in subjects like polish, mathematics, physical education, music, art and practical work are not differentiated from the subjects themselves - As for these general subjects, their treatment is rather different from

TABLE IV. 30

POLAND : PEDAGOGICAL LYCÉUM CURRICULUM

Year	I	II	III	IV	V
Polish language with methods	5	5	4	4	4
Russian language	2	2	2	2	2
History	2	2	2	2	3
Knowledge of Poland and the modern world					2
Geography	2	2	2		
Biology	3	2	2	1	
Mathematics with methods	5	4	3	3	3
Physics	3	3	3	3	
Astronomy					1
Chemistry	2	2	2	1	
Physical training with methods	2	2	2	2	2
Military training			2	2	2/0
Music education with methods	2	2	1	1	2
Instrumental playing	2	2	1	1	1
Art education with methods	2	2	2	1	1
Practical-technical work with methods	2	3	3	3	1
Introduction to philosophy					2
School hygiene				1	
Pedagogic subjects *			4	7/5	4
General teaching methods				0/2	3
Total	34	34	35	34	32/30
Class teacher's problems	1	1	1	1	1
Optional subjects					
Choral singing	1	1	1	1	1
Instrumental music	1	1	1	1	1
Second foreign language	2	2	2	2	2

* Pedagogic subjects = psychology, pedagogy, history of education

Entries thus: 7/5 = 7 in first semester, 5 in second.

that in the general lyceum; although they are by no means exclusively dealt with from the point of view of their applicability to elementary school teaching, this side is certainly emphasised. Consequently, the weight given to teacher training is rather greater than appears on the surface. The details are given in Table IV 30.[41]

At a higher level (and more typical of the area as a whole) is the post-secondary college course, of which the Hungarian teachers' training college (tanár továbbképző kollégium) can serve as an example. A three-year course entered from the upper secondary school (gimnázium), this gives overwhelming emphasis to professional training. This course, too, has been re-shaped. The earlier version (see Table IV 31)[42] defies any detailed breakdown, for the usual reason that in some subjects the time given to method is not distinguished from that for the subjects themselves. The general impression, however, is that apart from the courses in Marxism-Leninism and Russian language, plus some of the mother tongue and mathematics, by far the greater part of the course is concerned with professional preparation. The later version (see Table IV 32)[43] is more amenable to breakdown, giving as it does more precise detail. At first sight, the distribution seems much more inclined than one would expect towards general studies - about 58 per cent, as against 26 for method and teaching practice and 16 for educational theory, psychology and didactics. This is rather misleading, however. Obviously enough, Marxism-Leninism and Russian are not teaching subjects in the elementary classes, but beyond this point certainly factors; mother

tongue, art, music, physical education, geography, even agricultural science and practical training, serve a dual function - they are intended as contributions to the students' general culture (which, one presumes, also helps to make them better teachers), and at the same time provide knowledge and skills directly relevant to what they will do in the classroom. As we have seen many times already, the boundary between general education and professional training is frequently hard to distinguish, especially in courses for primary school teachers.

Finally, there are university-level courses such as those provided in the pedagogic faculties in the Czechoslovak universities. While there has been a general tendency to move the training of primary school teachers out of the upper secondary level towards that of the higher institutions, the process has gone further in Czechoslovakia than anywhere else. These faculties, it will be remembered, were developed out of the older teacher training college, and now offer four-year courses for primary school teachers. The "core" curriculum covers three main areas - political courses, psychology and pedagogy, together with logic, physical education, a period of teaching practice, and special courses in audio-visual aids, skiing, camping, practice in pioneer camps, etc. Other subjects, such as Czech or Slovak, mathematics, art music and so forth, are grafted on to the core. For details, see Table IV 33.[44]

TABLE IV. 31

HUNGARY : TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGE CURRICULUM

Year	I		II		III
Semester	1	2	3	4	5-6
Marxism-Leninism	3	3	3	3	3
Russian language	2	2	2	2	
Psychology	3	2	3		
Logic	2				
Pedagogy (a) theory of education		2	2		
(b) theory of teaching		4			
History of pedagogy				2	3
Mother tongue	2	2			
Extra-curricular work				5	4
Mathematics	2	2			
Mother tongue teaching methods		2	2	2	
Arithmetic teaching methods			2	2	
Agricultural science			2	2	
Singing and singing methods	3	2	2	2	2
Drawing and drawing methods	3	3	2	2	4
Handwork and handiwork methods	3				2
Physical education and methods	2	2	3	2	4
Literature for young people	2	2			
Teaching practice			6	6	6
Geography			2		
Total Hours Weekly	27	30	31	28	30

TABLE IV. 32

HUNGARY : TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGE CURRICULUM

Year	I		II			III
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6
Marxism-Leninism	2+1	2+1	2+1	2+1		1+1
Logic	2+0					
Psychology	2+1	2+1	2+1			
Didactics	3+1					
Theory of education		3+0	2+1			
History of pedagogy						2+1
General culture				1+0		0+2
Methods of teaching mother tongue		0+3	0+3			
Methods of teaching arithmetic		0+2	0+3			
Methods of environmental studies		0+3				
Methods of teaching singing				0+2		
Methods of teaching drawing				0+2		
Methods of practical training			0+2			
Methods of physical education				0+2		
Teaching practice			0+6	0+6		0+3
Mother tongue	1+3	1+3		2+0		4+0
Russian language	0+2	0+2	0+2	0+2		
History of art						2+0
Mathematics	0+2	0+2				
Geography				2+0		
Agricultural science				2+0		
Child anatomy and physiology	2+0					
Practical training	0+2	0+3				
Singing	0+3	0+3	0+2	0+3		0+3
Drawing	0+2	0+2	0+2			0+2
Physical education	0+2	0+2	0+2			0+2
Total Hours Weekly	30	32	31	27		23
Total Hours theory	12	7	6			9
Total Hours practice	18	25	25	18		14
Elective subject	0+2	0+2	0+2	0+2		0+2

TABLE IV. 88

CZECHOSLOVAKIA : PEDAGOGIC FACULTY, PRIMARY SCHOOL COURSE, COU

Year	I		II		III
Semester	1	2	3	4	5
History of the international labour movement and communist party of Czechoslovakia	3				
Historical and dialectical materialism		3	3		
Political economy				3	3
Scientific communism					
Elective course					
Logic	2				
Child biology	2				
School hygiene					
Introduction to psychology	3				
Development psychology		4			
Educational psychology			3	3	
Elective course					2
Introduction to pedagogy		3			
Didactics			4		
Theory of education				4	
History of pedagogy (seminar)					2
Elective seminar					
Teaching practice					2
Elective seminar					
Physical education	2	2	2	2	2
Total hours per week	12	12	12	12	11
Examinations	3	1	1	1	2
Audio-visual aids (etc.) courses					
Teaching practice in schools	1 wk				
Skiing course	7 dys				
Camping work		10 dys			
Teaching practice in summer camps			3 weeks		
Teaching practice (continuous)					1 week

iii Secondary school teachers

Subject specialists for secondary schools, as has been noted in Chapter III and demonstrated in the case of Yugoslavia in this chapter, frequently fall into two well-defined categories, with a marked difference between them in length and standard of the course. This is particularly obvious in Poland, where teachers for the upper secondary school (the general educational lyceum) are graduates of either the universities or the higher pedagogic schools. Both of these offer five-year courses and, technically, enjoy parity of esteem, though, as Suchodolski has pointed out,[45] the greater degree of specialisation in the universities ensures that their graduates in fact exhibit a higher level of subject mastery, while those from the higher pedagogical schools (specialising in two subjects instead of one) have more thorough training in pedagogic courses at least. What has been said about the Soviet pedagogic institutes vis-à-vis the universities holds substantially true here as well. At the lower secondary level, however, the position is quite different; pupils at this stage (the last four classes of the basic school) are taught mainly by graduates of the teachers' studium (studium nauczycielskie) which is also taking over the functions of the pedagogic lyceum in the training of elementary school teachers.

By the beginning of the 1960s, the teachers' studium had developed a core curriculum of general and pedagogic subjects, totalling between 16 and 27 hours a week, depending on the semester of study and, to a lesser extent, on sex. Out of this block of courses, about 30 per cent of the time was allocated to subjects that can be reckoned

TABLE IV. 14

POLAND : TEACHERS' STUDIUM - CURRICULUM FOR PEDAGOGIC SUBJECTS 1960

Year	I		II		
Semester	1	2	3	4	Total
1. Selected philosophical problems	2	2	2	2	8
2. Contemporary socio-political problems				2	2
3. Psychology	2	2	2	2	8
4. History and theory of education	2	2	2	2	8
5. Primary teaching methods		3	3	3	9
6. Special subject methods			4	4	8
7. School hygiene				2	2
8. Speech training	2	2	2		6
9. Drawing, handwork or music (choice)	2	2	2	2	8
10. Technical and polytechnical training	2	2	2	2	8
11. Russian, French, English or German (choice)	2	2	2	2	8
12. Physical education	2	2	2		6
13. Pre-military training (male students)	4	4	4	4	16
14. Domestic science (female students)		2	2	2	6
Total	20/16	22/20	27/25	25/23	90/80

* Special Subject :
1. Polish philology
2. Russian philology
3. Ukrainian philology
4. History
5. Geography
6. Biology
7. Physics
8. Mathematics
9. Singing and music
10. Drawing and handwork
11. Domestic science
12. Physical education
13. Kindergarten teaching
14. Agriculture
15. Handwork and domestic science
16. Special reading and speech

TABLE IV. 35

POLAND : TEACHERS' STUDIUM
NUMBER OF STUDENTS AND CLASSES BY SPECIAL SUBJECT 1960-1961

Subject / Year	No. of Students I	No. of Students II	No. of classes I	No. of classes II
1. Polish philology	1,167	875	33	25
2. Russian philology	176	58	5	2
3. Ukrainian philology	15	16	1	1
4. History	561	824	14	10
5. Geography	696	475	14	13
6. Biology	605	597	16	14
7. Physics	657	430	20	16
8. Mathematics	870	760	24	22
9. Singing and music	270	180	8	6
10. Drawing and handwork	630	397	15	10
11. Domestic science		32		1
12. Physical education	244	170	7	6
13. Kindergarten teaching	35	29	1	1
14. Agriculture	125	34	3	1
15. Handwork and domestic science	27	24	1	1
16. Special reading and speech	244	179	5	3
Total per year	6,243	4,400	161	132
Total	10,703		293	

fairly safely as general rather than professional - socio-political courses, foreign languages, pre-military training for men and domestic science for women, etc. The rest was devoted either to clearly professional subjects (psychology, history and theory of education, methods, etc.) or to those at least largely relevant (drawing, music, handwork, physical education, etc.) For details see Table IV 34.[46]

To this core was added one special subject. There were 16 of these to choose from in the country as a whole - Polish, Russian, Ukrainian, history, geography, biology , physics, mathematics, singing and music, drawing and handwork, domestic science, physical education, kindergarten teaching, agriculture, handwork and domestic science, special reading and speech. Of these by far the greatest single group of students was the one taking Polish, with mathematics, physics, boilogy, geography, history, drawing and handwork following some way behind; singing and music, special reading and speech, physical education and, oddly, Russian came further behind still, while the numbers in agriculture, domestic science, Ukrainian and kindergarten teaching were tiny. (See Table IV 35 for details.)[47]

Dissatisfaction with the standard of specialist preparation led to some shifting of the balance, mainly by trimming some time from the core - a whole semester came off the foreign language allocation, for instance, another came off speech training, the pre-military training/domestic science element vanished altogether, and a few other adjustments were made, giving a core of between

TABLE IV. 36

POLAND : TEACHERS' STUDIUM - GEOGRAPHY

Semester	1	2	3	4	Total
1. Selected problems in philosophy	2	2	2	2	8
2. Psychology	2	2			4
3. Pedagogy	2	2		4	8
4. General teaching methods		1	3	3	7
5. History of education			2		2
6. School hygiene				2	2
7. Foreign language	2	2	2		6
8. Drawing	2	2	2		6
9. Handwork	2	2	2		6
10. Singing	2	2	2	2	8
11. Physical education	2	2	2		6
12. Speech training	2	2			4
	18	19	17	13	67
13. Geology	3				3
14. General physical geography	3	4	2		9
15. Introduction to cartography	3				3
16. Physical geography of Poland	1	3			4
17. Economic geography of Poland			3	3	6
18. World geography		4	4	5	13
19. Geography teaching methods			2	3	5
20 Physics	2				2
21. Civics			2	2	4
	11	11	13	13	49
Total Hours weekly	30	30	30	26	116
Optional subjects					
Geography circles	2	2	2	2	8
Photography	2	2			4
Modelling	2	2	2		6

TABLE IV. 37

POLAND: TEACHERS' STUDIUM. EXPERIMENTAL CURRICULUM, GENERAL SUBJECTS AND GEOGRAPHY

	Semester	1	2	3	4	Total
I.	Basic pedagogic theory and practice					
1.	Philosophical-social problems	2	2	2	2	8
2	Child anatomy and physiology	2				2
3	Psychology	2	2	2	2	8
4	Pedagogy	2	2			4
5.	Audio-visual aids		2			2
6	History of education				3	3
7	School hygiene			2		2
8	Foreign language (elective)	2	2			4
	Total Group I	10	10	6	7	33
II	Professional Subjects					
9	Linguistics	2	2			4
10.	Children's literature	3	2			5
11	Speech training					
12	Arithmetic	5				5
13	Civics			2		2
14	General teaching methods		4	4	5	13
15	Drawing with methods	2	2			4
16	Handwork, with methods			2	2	4
17	Singing, with methods	2	2	2	2	8
18	Physical education, with methods	2	2	2		6
	Total Group II	14	14	12	9	49
III.	Elective Subjects					
19	Geology	2				2
20	Physical geography	2	2			4
21.	World geography		2	2	2	6
22.	Geography of Poland		2	2	2	6
23	Introduction to cartography	2				2
24	Geography teaching methods			2	2	4
	Total Group III	6	6	6	6	24
	Total Hours Weekly	30	30	24	22	106

13 and 19 instead of 16 and 27 hours a week, thus making more time available for special subjects. The new form of the curriculum for teachers of geography is given in Table IV 36.[48] This still gives some 56 per cent of the time to general and teacher training courses as against 44 per cent to the subject content of the special field, in marked contrast to any other courses for secondary specialists, even at this level, in Eastern Europe.

The phasing out of the pedagogic lyceum, however, and the taking over of its functions by the teachers' studium, produces pressure for further change. As we have seen, it is hoped to move all secondary specialist training (and, for that matter, all teacher training eventually) up to university level or its equivalent. In the meantime, however, experimental curricula are being tried out for the training of teachers qualified both for elementary work and, to some extent, secondary work as well. (With the large number of small eight-year schools in the country areas, with the increasing tendency to break down the division between the elementary and lower secondary stage, and with the inevitable delay in getting enough teachers from the higher pedagogical schools, this should have some advantages in the maintenance of teacher supply, though nobody would pretend that it is an ideal training for subject specialists especially in such a short course.) An example of this type of curriculum is the experimental two-year course for teachers of general subjects and geography, given in Table IV 37.[49] Here, the courses are grouped rather differently; Group I consists of general courses (like a foreign language or socio-philosophical courses), psychology, general pedagogy, etc., cut back

considerably as compared with previous curricula, and accounting for about 31 per cent of the total. Group II, called "professional subjects", embraces subjects likely to be taught in the elementary school, methods, and a few supporting courses, and takes up 47 per cent of the total time, thus forming the largest group of subjects. Group III, the special subjects (geography, in this case) is the smallest, with 22 per cent. Compared with the geography specialists' course given in Table IV 36, the time for the special subject has been cut by just over half. Clearly, if this experiment is made the basis of general practice, the teachers' studium will be further away than ever from providing a viable specialist qualification for secondary teachers, even at the lower secondary level. Assuming a sufficient number of specialists from other institutions in the future, however, a curriculum of this type does make some sense, as an attempt to produce primary teachers with a leaning towards one area of the secondary course; these could be useful in a school where the transition from general to specialist teaching is less abrupt than at present. From any point of view, however, this must be considered as more of a modified primary course than one for secondary specialists - and, possibly, the same could be said of the current non-experimental course as well.

At the higher educational level, however, the position is quite different. Differing though they do in the degree of emphasis on subject content in the specialism, both the universities and the higher pedagogic schools in Poland agree in making this the chief concern of

the course. The universities have been paying more attention to the teacher training courses since the 1950s (see Table IV 38),[50] but still give less time to them, proportionately and absolutely, than do the higher pedagogic schools. A breakdown of the time spent on the various subject areas in the five-year chemistry course in the University of Lublin and the Higher Pedagogic School in Katowice bears this out:

		University	Higher Ped. School
1.	Specialist subject	3963 hours	3663 hours
2.	Political subjects	180	210
3.	General subjects	660	24
4.	Teacher training	210	585
	Total	5013 hours	4698 hours

)Political subjects consist of philosophy and politics in the university, philosophy, logic, ethics, political economy in the Higher Pedagogic School; under general studies come Russian) 90 hours in the university, 60 in the higher pedagogic school, a Western language - 120 hours in the university as against 60 in the higher pedagogic school, and physical/pre-military training - 450 hours in the university, 120 in the higher pedagogic school. The teacher training element breaks down thus:

		University	Higher Ped. School
1.	Pedagogy)		180
2.	Psychology)	60	135
3.	School hygiene)		15
4.	Experimental techniques)		45
5.	Methods	150	210
	Total	210	585

TABLE XV 38

POLAND : UNIVERSITY OF KRAKÓW TOTAL TIME FOR TEACHER-TRAINING COURSES

	Pedagogic subjects (hours)			Methods (hours)			Total course hours	Teaching practice (weeks)
	L	S/P	Total	L	S/P	Total		
Philology :								
Polish	60	45	105	60	90	150	255	4
Russian	60	30	90	60	60	120	210	6
English	60	30	90	30	60	90	180	4
Romance	60	30	90	30	60	90	180	4
Classical	60	30	90	60	"	60	150	4
Philosophy	30	"	30	"	"	"	30	"
History	60	60	120	90	60	90	210	4
Geography	60	30	90	60	60	120	210	4
Biology	60	"	60	30	60	90	150	4
Mathematics	60	"	60	30	60	90	150	4
Physics	"	"	"	30	90	120	120	4
Astronomy	60	60	120	"	"	"	120	4
Chemistry	60	60	120	30	"	30	150	4
Music	60	60	120	60	60	120	240	4

L = Lectures

S/P = Seminars or practical work

The role of teacher training courses in the university is not, however, always as small as this; they tend to be more prominent in the humanities than in the sciences. In the Russian course, for instance, "Fundamentals of pedagogy" are given three lectures and two seminars a week throughout the third year, while methods take up two lecturers and three seminars a week in the fourth. In additon to this, there is a course on audio-visual aids in the fifth year, and six weeks of teaching practice - two weeks in the 8th semester, four in the 9th. Altogether, the time for pedagogic subjects comes to 330 hours out of a total of 3096 over the five-year course.[51]

Finally, it is possible in some cases to take secondary teaching qualifications in other higher institutions, such as art, music or physical education colleges. But some are also available in technical colleges, such as the East German Technische Hochschulen, which prepare not only teachers of polytechnical and allied subjects, but also of physics chemistry, etc. (See Table IV 39, 40).[52] Again, special subject content takes up the bulk of the time (nearly 60 per cent in the case of physics specialists - though, oddly enough, more of this goes on mathematics than on physics). Of the rest, nearly 21 per cent is alloted to general courses (foreign language, political subjects physical education), and over 19 per cent to teacher training - just over half to pedagogy, etc., and just under half to subject teaching methods, not including teaching practice

TABLE IV. 39

EAST GERMANY : PHYSICS TEACHER'S COURSE

TECHNISCHE HOCHSCHULE, KARL-MARX-STADT. 1966- 1967

Year	I		II		III		IV		V
Semester	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9/10
History of the German labour movement	1 1	1 1							
Marxist-philosophy	1.5 1.5	1.5 1.5							
Political economy			2 2	2 2					
Scientific socialism					1 1	1 1			
Special seminar								1	
Foreign language	2	2	2						
Physical education	2	2	2	2					
Analysis	4 3	4 3	2 1						
Analytical geometry	4 3	4 3							
Algebra-number theory			4 2						
Elementary mathematics	4	4							
Representational geometry					2 2				
Differential equations				2 1					
Function theory				3 1					
Construction of number systems					2				
Mathematics teaching methods					1 1	1 4	1		
Experimental physics	4 2	4 2							
Theoretical physics			3	4 2	4 2				
Applied physics			4 2						
Physics teaching methods					1	2 3	1 1		
Special seminar						3		3	
Structure of materials			2	3	2	2			
History of physics								2	
Pedagogy				3 1	2 1	2		1	
Psychology				1 2	1 3				
Speech training					1				
School hygiene						1			
Total Hours Weekly	33	33	28	28	27	30	3	7	-
Work practice (days)	½	½	½	½	1	1	-	1½	-

Teaching practice : 4th Year (8th semester)

Practical work : 1st Year : 4 weeks in holiday camps

2nd Year : 4 weeks introductory practice

3rd Year : 6 weeks subject practice

TABLE IV 40

EAST GERMANY : POLYTECHNICAL TEACHER'S COURSE
TECHNISCHE HOCHSCHULE, KARL-MARX-STADT. 1966 - 1967

Year	I				II				III				IV		V	
Semester	1		2		3		4		5		6		7	8	9	10
History of the German labour movement	1	1	1	1												
Marxist philosophy	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5												
Political economy					2	2	2	2								
Scientific socialism									1	1	1	1				
Special seminar														1		
Foreign language		2		2		2										
Physical education		2		2		2		2								
Mathematics	3	5	3	3												
Experimental	3	1	3	1												
Applied physics					2	2										
History of technology									2	1						
					2											
Pedagogy							2	1	2	1		2			1	
Psychology							1	2	1	2						
School hygiene											1					
Speech training									1							
Technical skills					2	3										
Paper and cardboard work						2										
Woodwork								4								
Metalwork								4								
Plastic work						2										
Machinery									2		2	3			3	
Electrotechnics							2	2	2	3	2	3				
BMSR-Technik									2			4				
Mechanical technology											1			3	2	
Economics											2			2	2	
Technology of materials	3		1	2												
Chemistry	2	2	2	2												
Tech. drg. and construction	2	2		2												
Methods of general polytech educ.							1	1								
Subject methods									1	1	2	2				
Statics					2											
Dynamics							2	1								
School practice										2		3	1			
Blackboard work, technical media					1				1	2			1			
Machine work I					1					1						
Machine work II									1			1				
Optional subjects											2	2				
Total Hours Weekly	32		32		32		41		29		26		2	14		

Teaching practice = 4th year (7th semester).

(d) General Observations

Out of this great variety of curricula obtaining in the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe, can any consistent pattern be discerned? Can the structure of the courses, and the allocation of time to the various types of discipline, tell us anything about the relative importance placed on them in the training of teachers for the general schools?

It would be too much, in an area as complex as this, to expect full consistency or anything like it. Even in the single case of Yugoslavia, as we have seen variety and inconsistency are both common and often striking. Nevertheless, allowing for exceptions, a number of general points to emerge:

(1) In courses for pre-school and elementary teachers, the nature of many of the subjects makes any firm demarcation between general educational subjects - those intended to contribute to the students' personal further education - and the more precisely professional ones - whether concerned with subject content of pedagogy and method - rather difficult. Making allowances for the ambiguity of many subjects, however, and noting the selection of subjects entered as general, it does seem that for teachers of this type the main emphasis is on professional training.

(2) Training institutions of the intermediate type (pedagogic institutes, higher pedagogic schools, pedagogic academies, etc.), though hardly to be equated, generally agree in giving a marked

preference to the content of special subjects, and less attention to teacher training subjects than institutions for the training of elementary school teachers.

(3) At the highest level (universities and equivalent), the emphasis on subject content has gone even further, while the training element has dwindled - sometimes, as in some Yugoslav universities, to vanishing point. There is greater specialisation, too, within the area of subject content, whether this involves a general move from two specialisms to one (as in the USSR), or at least towards professing one major and one minor subject, as is the common procedure in Yugoslavia.

(4) As has been noted in Chapter III, the correspondence is by no means exact in all systems, but there is a tendency for graduates of the "sub university" type of institution to gravitate to the lower secondary stage, graduates of the universities and equivalent to the upper secondary stage, whether this is specifically built into the system or not. In some cases (e.g. the USSR) there is considerable overlap, but in others (e.g. Yugoslavia) the gap is wide indeed.

(5) In the college and university courses for secondary teachers the time for pedagogic courses is frequently equalled or even exceeded by that for other non-specialist courses, such as foreign languages, political subjects, physical education, etc.

(6) The bias towards subject content is inclined to be greater in the sciences than in the humanities.

From this, it would seem that a number of assumptions underlie the construction of most courses:

(1) Knowledge of pedagogic and psychological theory, and practical teaching skill, are most valuable at the beginning of the educational process - i.e. pre-school institutions and elementary classes.

(2) For secondary subject specialists these areas are less important, at least relatively, and the major task is to ensure the mastery of the content of the subjects to be taught (especially in the sciences). This does not necessarily mean, of course, that the principles of education and the practice of teaching are thought to be unimportant (though some do take this view unofficially), but they do come a long way second.

(3) Within the range of secondary school specialists, those likely to teach the older pupils need even more concentration on subject content, less on theory and practice of teaching. In short. "They must know what they are going to teach. How to teach is... secondary"[53] is applied more and more the higher one goes up the system. This assumption is so imbedded in the East European systems (as in others nearer home) that few think of questioning it. Even if it is assumed for the moment that there is no positive view to the effect that teacher training is less valuable for the more advanced work,

and that the only reason for the paucity of time is the pressure from the specialist side, it comes to much the same thing. In this contrast as in the contrast between the time given to political and general subjects and that given to teacher training, the language of priorities can speak as clearly as any overt statement.

In spite of the minor role of teacher training courses, they are usually insisted upon as qualitatively (if not quantitatively) important. We shall now consider what is offered in some of these courses in pedagogy and allied subjects.

3. The Content of Professional Courses - Syllabuses and Textbooks

Among the subjects usually classified as "professional" - pedagogy, psychology, didactics and teaching methods - pedagogy is intended as the theoretical basis, a frame of reference within which practice can be worked out and evaluated. Not only does it seek to systematise the broader issues of educational aims, but links them with more immediate class room objectives. Thus, the basic principles of pedagogy are treated as the content of didactics or theory of method (where this is a separate subject), and thence of subject methods themselves.

In practice, teaching methods tend to be approached in a rather more empirical way, and the connection with the principles enunciated in the pedagogy courses is not always apparent. (This is, of course, a general phenomenon, in spite of the attempts of writers like Rusk and Ross to insist on necessary connections between ideology and practice at nearly every level of teaching activity.[54] But if methods and practice are inclined to take on a life of their own the concepts dealt with in pedagogy can still be used to provide a vocabulary for their assessment (the only alternative, in the last analysis, to a completely arbitrary approach). In the Soviet Union and the East European countries, the process goes further; considerable trouble is taken to connect not only practice with theory, but theory with ideology - that it, pedagogic principles are treated

in relation to the socio-political values of society, both from the Marxist and national point of view.

A good example of a course in pedagogy as an attempt to form an all-embracing educational Weltanschauung is found in the syllabus of the Soviet pedagogical schools, which goes into rather more detail than most others.[55] Like other sources of this kind, it deals with far more than teaching, but with instruction, upbringing, and the instructional upbringing process. These terms call for some explanation before we go on to examine the syllabus itself, since they have analogues in most of the other East European languages, and reflect similar distinctions. Russian uses several words which can be roughly rendered as "education", but with important differences in overtone and emphasis; of these, the ones most frequently in use are (1) Prosveshchenie (2) obrazovanie (3) obuchenie and (4) vospitanie. The first two are of fairly general application; prosveshchenie can be translated as "enlightenment", personal or national, and is used in the titles of the chief Ministries of Education (Ministerstva prosveshcheniya), whose function is regarded as the "enlightenment" of the whole people, education in the widest sense from schools and colleges to youth organisations and museums. Obrazovanie ("moulding" or "shaping") is rather more limited to the formal aspects of the educational process - hence the titles of Ministries of Public Education (Ministerstva narodnogo obrazovaniya) or Ministries of Higher Education. But the last two terms are more specialised, and their distinction is crucial for our purposes here.

Obucheniie is education in the sense of instruction or training, the process of instilling knowledge and skills, usually in the formal sense; vospitaniie, on the other hand, has connotations of upbringing, rearing, nurturing, but is used more widely than any of these terms in English - "moral education" or even "physical education" are regularly rendered as moral'noie vospitaniie or fizicheskoie vospitaniie. Both vospitaniie and obucheniie are regarded as elements in the process of obrazovaniie, and when this aspect has to be stressed, it is often described as the "instructional-upbringing process" (uchebno-vospitatel'nyi protsess). This usually makes for clumsy and jargon-laden translation: since the distinctions are vital, however, "upbringing", "instruction" and their derivatives will have to be used here, inelegant though they may be.

The first part of the course, then, "General fundamentals of pedagogy", deals in its first section with upbringing and its role in the life of society, detailing the following topics:

> Upbringing - a social process. The role of upbringing in the life of society, and its class and historical character. Upbringing in primitive society; upbringing in the conditions of slave society; upbringing in the feudal period; upbringing in the Renaissance period; upbringing in capitalist society; upbringing in socialist society.

Having presented the upbringing process as intimately connected with the type of society in which it functions, the course goes

on to distinguish between upbringing, instruction and education (obrazovanie), while insisting on their essential unity. Pedagogy is thus presented as the science of upbringing and instruction, while "Soviet pedagogy (is) the science of the communist upbringing of the rising generation", based on Marxist-Leninist philosophy. The ideological implications are, therefore, spelled out right at the beginning.

After some examination of the nature of the subject, its links with other disciplines, and the tasks of specifically Soviet pedagogy, the course goes on to a historical survey of the development of Soviet pedagogy "and its relation to the historical accumulation of experience of upbringing and education". This involves a brief account of Komensky, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Diesterweg and Robert Owen, "the most eminent representatives of pedagogic thought in the West"; then comes the Russian contribution, with special reference to the K. D. Ushinskii and the revolutionary-democrats (including, rather dubiously, Vissarion Belinskii); Marx, Engels and Lenin appear to illustrate "the formation and development of the pedagogic ideas of scientific socialism"; and finally Krupskaya, Kalinin and Makarenko are brought in under the rubric, "The development of Marxist pedagogy in our country".

Obviously, this is no random sampling from a course in "the great educators". The names are selected with a purpose, namely, to show modern Soviet pedagogy as a unique corpus of thought, the

inheritor of the best progressive thinking of the European mainstream (Komensky for system and popular education, Rousseau for his practical bias and attention to developmental stages, Owen for obvious reasons). At the same time, the specifically Russian contribution is stressed by bringing in the 19th century liberals. Marx, Engels and Lenin provide the ideological foundation, and Krupskaya, Kalinin and Makarenko personify the uniquely Soviet blend of the progressive, Russian and socialist elements. How far this interpretation could be sustained is not the point here; to a great extent, taking what one wants from the thinkers of the past is common practice, and it must be said that this selection will stand up better than some (e. g. the fathering of Cordonstoun on Plato, or the boarding-school ethos on Arnold). Some of the names in the Soviet list, however, do look rather uncomfortable in their role. But this syllabus does not attempt a full treatment of these figures; a brief outline, a few selected readings, and the point is made - the students are given to understand that they are the inheritors of a pedagogic tradition that summates the best of the old and provides a starting-point for the new. Just in case the point is not fully taken, provision is made for "a critique of modern bourgeois theories of pedagogy".

The second section, "Growth and Upbringing", is also partly historical. Its main concern, however, is to deal with the relationship between growth and upbringing (i. e. natural and guided development of the personality), and between heredity, environment and upbringing. In this last connection, the views of "Utopian socialists,

Russian revolutionary-democrats, bourgeois-reactionary theories" and, finally, Marxist-Leninist teaching are looked at. This is not, as is sometimes thought in the West, to dismiss totally the contribution of heredity - this is given as one of the errors of the Utopians - but to argue that, while hereditary differences do exist, environmental ones are more important, and that the upbringing process can be crucial in securing desirable results. They do reject crude biological determinism, but do not insist on a tabula rasa.[56]

Section 3 moves on from consideration of the development of the theory of upbringing in general, and communist upbringing in particular, to the specific "tasks of upbringing in the period of construction of communist society", with special reference to what the programme of the Communist Party has to say about these. The specific tasks enumerated (and which will be returned to in much greater detail later) are given as intellectual education, moral upbringing, labour upbringing (trudovoe vospitanie, upbringing for and through work), aesthetic upbringing and polytechnical upbringing. These (and the list is extended later) are not given as isolated tasks, but as necessarily interconnected aspects of "the all-round development of the children".

Having outlined the theoretical basis and the special tasks of communist upbringing, the syllabus goes on (section 4) to deal with the system of public education in the USSR. This is not just an account of the different types of school, but an attempt to relate them to their

theoretical base. The system of public education, first of all, is examined with reference to its "dependence ... on the social and political order". This involves some treatment of the system in Tsarist Russia and in capitalist countries, mentioning "the struggle of the progressive forces of society for the improvement of the system of public education". As with theory, so with practice; the culmination of these movements is reached with "the revolutionary construction of the system of public education in the USSR after the Great October Socialist Revolution", with an account (in some detail, judging from the textbooks) of the most important party and government enactments, from the first decrees after the Revolution to the current programme of the CPSU and the resolutions of the 22nd Party Congress. Special mention is made here of the "Law on strengthening the links of the school with life and on the further development of the system of public education in the USSR." (This, of course, was the "Khrushchov reform" of 1958, and it has to be borne in mind that this particular syllabus was published in 1964, just before the modification of some of Khrushchov's changes and his eventual fall from power. It was still being used, however, in 1968, but with some shifts of emphasis in practice; Khrushchov is not mentioned in the more recent syllabus used for the pedagogic institutes.)

The account of the actual workings of the school system concentrates, predictably, on the pre-school and elementary stages, with some emphasis on their importance in the general scheme. Attention is paid, too, to "boarding and prolonged day schools - new types of upbringing establishments". (Here too the syllabus

has been overtaken by events; boarding school development has been slackening off in the last few years. In practice, the course still does deal with boarding schools - they are, after all, still significant in the educational system - but not in quite the lyrical tone the syllabus seems to call for.) Some study of comparative education is brought in at this stage (tendentiously, judging from the textbook),[57] in the form of a brief account of the system of public education in (some) socialist countries and in the "chief capitalist countries - the U.S., England and France".

Part II of the course deals with Didactics. The first section gives a historical survey of the development of didactics from Komensky, through Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Diesterweg, with a look at the work of Ushinskii, up to "Soviet didactics, the highest stage in the development of didactics". The main point, however, is the definition of the process of instruction as "a process of equipping pupils with knowledge, understanding and skills, a process of development of learning aptitudes and creative powers," followed by an elaboration of this from the psychological point of view. If this seems rather like stating the obvious at great length, it is worth remembering that the students in the peduchilishcha are mostly teen-age girls, who probably do need to have pointed out to them what underlies putting across factual material in Russian or arithmetic; they are unlikely to think of it spontaneously. To drive the point home, there is also mention of "the leading role of the teacher (in) the development of the pupils' activity and independent work".

For all the jargon (and there is plenty of that), the students are being asked to look at the teaching process and their part in it in relation to the children they will teach.

The second section deals with concept-formation and the building up of ideas in children. Some of the material is straight description of the development of children's thinking, but the central topic here is "the importance of correct ideas for the creation of a scientific world view". Taking this line of thought a stage further, section 3 examines the "principles of the instructional-upbringing process". The object of this section is to underline the "upbringing character" (vospityvayushchii kharakter) of instruction - in other words, to make the point that the teaching process goes far beyond instruction, that it can be an important factor in upbringing; and having said that, the syllabus specified the use that can be made of this, namely, "The role of instruction in the formation of the pupils' communist world view and the skills of communist conduct". The rest of the section is more practical - use of visual aids, the function of system and sequence, assessment and reinforcement, the importance of activity and independent work, pupil-teacher relations on an individual basis, and "the upbringing of personality in and through the collective". The "instructional-upbringing process", therefore, is given its social point of reference, and the practical aspects are detailed within this context.

Moving from the general to the particular, section 4 turns to "The content of elementary education". Under this heading comes

some definitions of terms (an attempt to clarify such concepts as general, polytechnical and vocational education), a historical survey of the content of the Russian elementary school, and some detailed consideration of the content of the modern Soviet school - analysis of the curriculum, the principles of curriculum construction, a look at the balance of subjects in each class and the interconnections of the subject material and, finally, the role of textbooks.

The mention of textbooks provides the link with the next section, which turns from content to method. Section 5, however, is not an attempt at a short methods course (that comes elsewhere in the curriculum, as we have seen). Some of it is little more than strutting - "the scientific and psychological foundations of teaching methods in the Soviet school" as compared with "a critical analysis of teaching methods in the schools of pre-revolutionary Russia and the contemporary bourgeois school", all of which sounds rather odd when one considers that whatever the excellences of the Soviet school system may be, teaching method is by common consent not one of them. Some of the principles enunciated, however, are unexceptionable; for instance, "the dependence of teaching methods on the characteristics of the material to be mastered ... and on the pupils' developmental characteristics" - obvious enough, perhaps, but not to a 16-year-old tyro, in the Soviet Union or anywhere else. The same can be said for the rather plodding examination of different types of method - verbal, visual, practical, etc., and a call for "rational combination" of these. As for the insistence on "the improvement of the pupils' activity, independence and initiative in the

instructional process", this is a welcome contrast to the reliance on "chalk-and-talk" formality still widespread in Soviet schools.

The next sections go into further detail. Section 6 "The lesson as the basic form of the organisation of school work" examines (after the almost inevitable historical survey from Komensky onwards) the planning and construction of lessons, singly or in series, with some advice on the roles of homework, assessment, and ways of using them in the lesson itself. Section 7 take sup the last point, and goes more deeply into questions of assessment - different methods, standards, and their use as stimuls as well as a check on results. Section 8 looks at some of the problems of applying the foregoing principles and techniques in the small rural school, in which many of the students in the peduchilishcha are quite likely to have to teach.

Part III, "Fundamentals of the theory of upbringing", starts with another historical survey of theories of upbringing, from the revolutionary-democrats to "the founders of Marxism-Leninism", ending with an account of the writings of Krupskaya, Makarenko and Kalinin on "the upbringing of the rising generation in socialist society". This leads on to the "programme of upbringing work in the school" - there is a syllabus for this just as there is for school subjects - and defines the main tasks. Section 2 looks at methods of upbringing, including a host of topics familiar in slightly different contexts nearer home, such as habit formation, methods of persuasion, discussion, class discipline, the use of rewards and punishments, criticism and self-criticism (a more specifically Marxist item),

group and individual activities, example and emulation.

The third section, "The formation of the basis of the communist world view", is obviously peculiar to communist countries (though much of the content, once the necessary changes have been made in vocabulary and point of reference, is not so unfamiliar after all). Nobody expects, of course, that primary school children can be taught political theory, but this is not the intention. The aim here is to form the basis - that is, to accustom the children to the communist way of looking at society, their role in it, the world and nature in general. So central is this aim to the work of the Soviet school that this particular section is worth quoting in full:

> The concept of a world view. The communist world view of the laws of nature and society.
>
> The programme of the CPSU and the decisions of the June 1963 Plenum of the CC CPSU on the formation of the scientific world view, on the irreconcilability of communist and bourgeois ideology, and on the struggle against survivals of the past in the consciousness of the people.
>
> The struggle against manifestations of bourgeois views, morals and customs, against the remnants of the psychology of private ownership, against superstitions and prejudices.
>
> Mastery by pupils of the elementary classes (according to their powers of understanding) of the scientific

explanation of natural phenomena and various social phenomena.

The following sections take up more detailed themes along similar lines. Section 4, "Atheist upbringing", begins thus:

> Marxism-Leninism on religion. The origin of religion and its fundamental alignments. The incompatability of science and religion. The programme of the CPSU on overcoming religious survivals.
>
> The Decree of the Council of People's Commissars of 21 January 1918 "on the separation of the church from the state and the school from the church". The resolution of the CC CPSU "On errors in the conduct of scientific-atheist propaganda among the population" of 10 January 1964.

There follows a discussion of ways and means of conduction "anti-religious upbringing in the elementary classes of the school" through "the formation of the elements of a scientific world view in lessons", discussions in class, film shows, talks with parents and individual pupils, etc.

Section 5, "Upbringing in communist morals" is a lengthy one, given that the Soviet view of morality is social and political, and is thus liable to range fairly widely. From the outset, there is the definition of "morality as a form of social consciousness", a careful contrast between the Marxist-Leninist and religious views of morality, and a particular study (after the usual historical review

and reference to the appropriate party documents) of "the moral code of the builder of communism - the basis of moral upbringing". This code - surprisingly similar, mutatis mutandis, to an extended version of the Scout Law, but socially rather than supernaturally based, is made a special subject of study in seminars.

But morality is given a national as well as a social bias; the section goes on to deal with "Upbringing in Soviet patriotism and proletarian internationalism", the stress being laid clearly on the former. Patriotism is widely defined; the ways and means outlined in the scheme start with primary groups, then work up to the national one, thus:

> Upbringing in the love of one's family, school, native region and the Motherland; upbringing in feelings of indebtedness to the Motherland, and in vigilance and feelings of abhorrence towards the enemies of the Soviet Motherland; upbringing in feelings of national pride; upbringing in feelings of friendship and brotherhood among all the peoples of the USSR, and total opposition towards national and racial enmity; upbringing in total opposition to the enemies of communism, peace and freedom of the peoples of all lands; upbringing in brotherly solidarity with workers of all countries.

As for some of the methods to be used:

> Significance of regional studies, study of the achievements of communist construction, and of the

advantages of the communist order; study of the biographies of great workers' leaders, and also of the biographies of outstanding social leaders in various walks of life; acquainting children with current political events and with the struggle of peoples for independence.

The breadth of the concept of patriotism used here is underlined by the inclusion in this section of "nurturing in children the aspiration for active participation in socially useful work and diligent study".

"Upbringing in communist attitudes towards work and socialist property" is the next topic in this section, and is treated as an extension of Soviet patriotism. The writings of Lenin and Krupskaya are brought in here, and attention is focussed on such matters as care for the safety of school property, protection of natural wealth, various kinds of activity to bring home to children the need to care for the resources of their own area, and the instilling of "irreconcilable attitudes towards plunderers of national property".

Finally, this section turns to "Upbringing in humanism and collectivism". For all the references to Makarenko and Krupskaya, the chief concern here is to encourage certain personal and social virtues, such as honesty and truthfulness, directness and modesty, honour and dignity, friendship and comradeship, and "upbringing of pupils of the elementary classes in thoughtful attitudes towards their friends, comrades and elders". The difference between this and more familiar versions, of course, is that these virtues are put in

a social context - macrocosmically (Soviet society as a whole) and microcosmically (the collective). The collective, whether of the class or the school, is treated as the setting and the referent for moral values, with the teacher as organiser and leader. Discipline, therefore, becomes more than keeping order in the classroom; it is presented here as a practical application of the principles of moral education through the collective, and at the same time a moral and social training in itself. The main "test" for this part of the course (apart from Makarenko) is the set of "Rules for Pupils" in force in all Soviet classrooms; this is used not only as a set of norms, therefore, but as a practical statement of the basic principles examined so far. The total impression of this whole part of the course, then, is to present moral, social and political upbringing, along with discipline, as a unity arising from the needs and conditions of Soviet society.

The next sections are somewhat more practical - section 6 deals with labour upbringing, 7 with physical upbringing, 8 with aesthetic upbringing - and discuss the relationship between these aspects and the general all-round development of personality. Section 9 is concerned with extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work, and goes into at some length the role of the teacher in organising school circles and clubs, and work with the Octobrists and Pioneers. Finally, section 10, "The school, the family and society" examines home-school relations both in theory and at a practical level - work with parents' committees and the like. The practical

work detailed here, incidentally, includes not only training in home visiting (a normal part of a teacher's duties), but a "plan for a lecture to parents on the upbringing of children".

Section IV (and last) is relatively brief, and relates to "School study" - one section on the teacher (role, legal position, duties, etc.), and one on the organisation of school work. This deals with the practical details of school management, enrolment of pupils, planning the work of the school and the class for the year and the term, the work of the pedagogic council, methods groups, relations with outside bodies, school finance, and so forth.

In addition to all this, there is provision for a considerable amount of seminar and practical work, related to the specific themes dealt with in the syllabus. There is also an intimidating list of reading - no less than 40 titles, most of them full-length books, plus reference to the journals Sovietskaya pedagogika, Nachal'naya shkola (The Elementary School), Vozhatyi (The Pioneer Leader), Sem'ya i shkola (Family and School), and Narodnoe obrazovanie (Public Education). How much of all this is actually read must be open to some doubt - the list, after all, includes the whole of Emile, the Great Didactic, and the Pedagogic Writings of both Ushinskii and Belinskii. According to some students, these are used more for reference than reading from cover to cover.[50] Most of the other prescribed texts, however, are both precise and realistic; it is not necessary to assume that all the set work is done

to recognise that the burden of work - and the coverage - of the course in pedagogy for students in peduchilishcha is considerable, thorough, and represents at least an attempt to plan a logically coherent whole. The syllabus is given in full in the Appendix.

The syllabus for the pedagogic institutes,[59] besides being less detailed, arranges its contents somewhat differently and emphasises different aspects, as one might expect in a course designed for secondary teachers. The methods section, for instance, is more closely adapted to subject specialists, the particular role of the class teacher is more closely examined, and the problems of the upbringing of older children and adolescents, naturally, find a place here - sex education, for example, is included in the section on moral upbringing. The general coverage, however, and the assumptions underlying it, are much the same, as a comparison of the main headings will demonstrate. (For the full text, see Appendix 2).

I. General Fundamentals of Pedagogy

1. Subject and tasks of pedagogy.
2. Upbringing, development and the formation of personality.
3. The construction of communism and the upbringing of the new man.
4. The system of public education in the USSR.

II. Theory of Upbringing

5. The process of upbringing, and its principles.
6. General methods of upbringing.
7. The formation of the communist world view.
8. Intellectual upbringing.
9. Moral upbringing.
10. Labour upbringing.
11. Aesthetic upbringing.
12. Physical upbringing

13. Organisation and upbringing of the pupils' collective.
14. The Pioneer and Komsomol Organisations in the school.
15. Joint work of the school, family and society.

III. Theory of Instruction

16. General, labour and polytechnical education.
17. The process of instruction, and its principles.
18. Curricula, syllabuses, textbooks.
19. Forms of organisation of school work.
20. Methods of instruction.

IV. Guidance on the Upbringing and Instruction of Pupils in the School.

21. The teacher - class leader and upbringer.
22. School management. Organisational-pedagogic work in the school.

We have already seen something of the reading expected of students in the pedagogic schools during the course, and noted that most of the works cited deal with specific topics. There are also, however, general textbooks of pedagogy covering the whole area of the course. In the pedagogic schools, the general text at present is Pedagogika (Pedagogy), edited by Professor B. P. Yesipova and published in 1967. The contents need not be gone into here; with some slight rearrangement of the various headings, they are much the same as those detailed in the syllabus. In the pedagogic institutes, the textbook is also entitled Pedagogika, and is edited by G. I. Shukina, E. Ya. Golant and K. D. Radina, published in 1966. Again, this keeps very close to the syllabus but is rather more sophisticated in tone than Yesipov's text. (It is also used in the universities). In addition to these, there is a "supporting text", Khrestomatiya po pedagogike (Readings in pedagogy), edited by

S.N. Polyanskii (1967). As the title suggests, this is a collection of extracts, ranging in length from single paragraphs to whole chapters or the complete texts of resolutions and laws. The authors represented here are those mentioned in the syllabus, plus several others, and are grouped according to the topics specified in the syllabus. This book is in use in all the training establishments, from pedagogic school to university (although it was prepared expressly for the pedagogic schools). It is, of course, not intended to be read from cover to cover, but is used in conjunction with the lectures and the general texts, selectively.

One Eastern European system noted for its political orthodoxy is East Germany, and indeed this is reflected in the closeness of its courses to the Soviet model. The course in pedagogy[60] is not merely a copy of the Soviet plan, however; striking though the similarities are, there are also signs of attempts to give the whole course a bent and flavour of its own. Both of these tendencies can be seen in the pedagogy syllabus for secondary (Oberstufe) teachers. For more details, see the Appendix.

The main areas of the course (with an indication of the time given to each) are as follows:

1.	Fundamentals of pedagogy	1 hour per week for 1 semester
2.	Theory of socialist education	2½ " " " "
3.	Theory of the instructional and formative teaching and learning process	3 " " " "

4.	Introduction to problems of rules of teaching and working for teachers and instructors	½ hour per week for 1 semester
5.	History of education and comparative education	2 " " " "
6.	Special seminar	1 " " " "

In "Fundamentals of Pedagogy", the aims are set out quite explicitly:

> .....the dialectical character of pedagogic science and the Marxist development of personality are examined in the conditions of full-scale construction of socialism; in this, above all, the social, political and philosophical bases and significance of the construction of the unified socialist educational system are to be pointed out. The historical aspect must be attended to in the exposition of this part of pedagogy.

This is elaborated in the various sections. Section 1, for instance, "Subject-matter and tasks of pedagogy", begins thus:

> Subject-matter of pedagogy; problems of the basic concepts of pedagogy (Bildung and Erziehung). The connections between education and instruction, their dependence on social and especially scientific development, and their significance for the socialist educational system.
>
> The system of pedagogic science; the links between

pedagogy and other sciences (philosophy, psychology, physiology, sociology, cybernetics, mathematics, medicine, etc.)

Marxist-Leninist philosophy as the methodological basis of pedagogic science.

Tasks of pedagogic science in the period of full-scale construction of socialism.... (etc.)

The closeness to the Soviet version is obvious - it might almost be a translation. Much the same could be said of the next section, "The Function of Education and Instruction in Society", which is largely concerned with demonstrating the "unity of politics, economics, ideology and pedagogy. The next section, "Instruction and the development of man" is not unlike the section on "Growth and upbringing" in the Soviet syllabus, but is, if anything, more political and philosophical in tone. For instance:

> Interconnections of society and the individual in the historical process; man as the totality of social connections (Marx) ... The spiritual, moral and physical development of personality through active participation in life (systematic instruction, work, social activity) ... The role of work and its goal and function in the pedagogic process. Teaching readiness and skill for work in the service of socialist society ...

> The relationship between the collective and personality; the nature of socialist communal work; contrast with bourgeois interpretations of the relationship between personality and the group.

The content of section 4, "Aims and tasks of socialist education in the DDR" is likewise familiar, and is concerned with "educational and instructional aims as the reflection of political, economic and cultural tasks (in) the concrete historical situation". On this basis, the more specific issues are set forth, such as:

> The systematic teaching of skills ... The development of logical thought ... Mathematical, scientific and polytechnical education and instruction ... Civic, social and moral education and instruction ... The mother tongue and foreign language education and instruction ... Aesthetic and physical education ... The connection between general and special education.

This is followed (section 5) by "Principles and structure of the unified socialist educational system" and, mutatis mutandis, covers much the same ground as the Soviet section on "The system of public education in the USSR", complete with enunciation of the basic principles, historical survey, legal provisions, and examination of the schools themselves.

> So far, apart from slight differences in vocabulary and

arrangement, there is little apparent difference between this syllabus and those in force in the Soviet Union. History of Education, however, receives separate and rather fuller treatment, though of course it is based on the same assumptions, as the main headings can demonstrate:

1. The progressive inheritance of classical bourgeois pedagogy - its scholastic, political and pedagogic outlines.
2. The scientific foundations of pedagogy through Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels.
3. The educational policy and pedagogic accomplishments of the German labour movement.
4. Critique of the educational policy and pedagogy of German imperialism.
5. The two ways of educational policy and pedagogic development in the two German states after 1945.

Sections 1 and 2 contain nothing not already familiar, but the rest of this part of the course has a strong national bias. The development of the Soviet school is treated in section 3, but there is more mention of Liebknecht, Zetkin, Bebel and Duncker than of Krupskaya, Makarenko or even Lenin. The connection between Soviet and East German developments has, of course, to be recognised, but there is careful avoidance of the impression that the East German system is an importation either in principle or practice. Section 3 does give some consideration to "the influence of the Socialist October Revolution" and the "significance for the present" of developments in the USSR and the work of Makarenko and Krupskaya; but its culminating themes are "Communist school programmes and the

educational policy struggle of the KPD" and "The revolutionary pedagogic heritage and its realisation in the DDR". Thus, the school system is presented as a plant of native growth.

To reinforce this point, section 4 treats the West German system as a continuation of the Second (if not the Third) Reich. Not only does it describe "The nature and function of imperialist pedagogy in the struggle against the labour movement and in the service of the world domination plans of German imperialism", but goes on to talk about "The furtherance of imperialist pedagogy in West Germany". In the next section (5), the contrast between the two Germanies is further emphasised, to the advantage of the East:

> The ... necessity of developing a democratic education in all Germany after the liberation from Hitler fascism.
>
> The anti-fascist democratic revolution in education in East Germany and its historical significance; the efforts of the progressive forces in the Western Zone for the democratisation of education, and their outcome.
>
> The restoration of imperialist educational policy and pedagogy in West Germany; the influence of the state-monopoly power system in the present conditions in West Germany.
>
> The social transformation of education in the DDR, the historical position of the unified socialist educational system in the DDR.

Similar points are made in the section on comparative education, with the usual contrast between "the socialist cultural revolution in the states of the socialist camp" and "certain economically advanced capitalist countries", though in the latter case there is some stress on school reform. Unlike the Soviet syllabus, however, this one has also something to say about educational developments in ex-colonial countries.

Three more courses in pedagogy are outlined more fully in the Appendix, namely, those in use in Rumania, Poland and in Yugoslavia. At this point, however, a summary of the main subject areas should suffice to convey the general patterns.

In Rumania, the course in pedagogy for pedagogic institutes[61] covers ground that is in essentials much the same, both in content and arrangement, as in the Soviet scheme. Only when there is any significant departure, therefore, will the main headings be elaborated here.

I. Object, tasks and methods of pedagogic science.

II. The scope and tasks of communist education.

III. The education and development of children. The peculiarities of children of school age.
(This section deals with topics similar to the Soviet section on upbringing and development, but places rather more emphasis on the psychological aspect.)

IV. The System of education in the Rumanian People's Republic.
(Apart from a factual account of the different types of schools, and an outline of the principles of the running of the system, there is a sharp contrast drawn between the present state of affairs and the "system of education in bourgeois-landlord Rumania. There is very little about the Soviet Union.)

V. The Process of Education

A. The essence of the process of education
B. Principles of education

VI. Content of the process of education.

VII. Methods of education.

VIII. Forms of organisation of the instructional process.

IX. Characteristics of the organisation of lessons in simultaneous work with two or more classes.
(This is a special course on problems of teaching in small rural schools).

X. The upbringing of the pupils in the spirit of communist morality.
(Allowing for some differences of arrangement, the essential content is much the same here as in the USSR, but there is the expected strongly national bias under "Educating pupils in the spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism".)

XI. The Organisation and education of the pupils' collective.

XII. The role and activity of the Pioneer Organisation and the UTM Organisation in the school.

XIII. Aesthetic education.

XIV. Physical education.

XV. Extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work with pupils.

XVI. Common activity of the school and family in the upbringing of children.

XVII. The role and personality of the teacher and professor in the school.

XVIII. School organisation.

The reading-list (see the Appendix) further underlines the similarity. There are documents of the Rumanian Workers' Party instead of the CPSU, speeches by Gheorghiu-Dej instead of speeches

by Khrushchov or Brezhnev, and a number of Rumanian titles, mainly on practical topics. The major theoretical texts, however, are works of Marx, Engels, Lenin, Krupskaya and Makarenko.

In Poland, although the departure from courses in pedagogy strictly modelled on the Soviet ones (and using a Polish translation of Kairov's Pedagogika as the major text) caused something of a stir,[62] the new courses were not radically different in essentials, as a summary of one of the major texts (Suchodolski's Zarys Pedagogiki, or Outline of Pedagogy) indicates.[63] (Vol. II will suffice for present purposes - the first deals mainly with historical and philosophical issues, also on broadly similar lines).

Introduction: Pedagogy as a science.

I. General considerations.

II. The character of socialist pedagogy.

- A. Critique of certain conceptions of education.
- B. Guiding role of education in the formation of personality.
- C. Aims of education.

Part I: Tasks, content and process of education

I. Intellectual education.

II. Moral and social education.

III. Aesthetic education.

IV. Physical education.

Part II.

I. Fundamentals of instruction

II. Principles, methods and organisation of intellectual education

A. Principles of instruction

B. Methods of instruction

C. Organisation of the forms of instruction.

Part III: Specific features of the work of certain educational institutions

I. The family as an educational institution

II. Pre-school education

III. Organisation of the teacher's activity in the school

IV. Extra-curricular and extra-scholastic activities

V. Extra-scholastic education of adolescents and adults

VI. The role of the teacher in the process of instruction and upbringing (This section departs somewhat from the familiar pattern in giving some consideration to the teacher's role in helping the advance of pedagogic sciences, and in raising the question "Whether so-called pedagogic talent is an inborn characteristic".)

So far, the deviations are for the most part negative; the political interpretation is there, of course, but is taken much more gently than in the Soviet, East German or Rumanian courses and texts; the anti-religious theme is also soft-pedalled, as one might

expect. But the general lines of the course show an obvious family relationship with the Soviet and other courses we have considered so far. The reading-list, however, is interesting (apart from its daunting length). A great deal of it is exactly what one would expect - Makarenko, Krupskaya, Kalinin, a great many modern Polish titles and not a few Russian ones, some of them in the original. It is worth noting, however, the government and party pronouncements do not appear; that there are a number of pre-war Polish works in the list; and the same Western contributions find their way in here too - Bixby's The Education, Herbert Read's Education through Art, and many others including, perhaps surprisingly, Dewey and Freinet, both in Polish translation. Altogether, the horizons of the course, in spite of the similarity of the pattern to the standard West European scheme, are wider-ranging and less circumscribed.

Finally, let us consider briefly a Yugoslav example. As usual with that country, one can rarely obtain syllabuses with any claim to general application, so flexible and variable are the arrangements; but the most widely used textbook of pedagogy[64] (certainly in Serbia and to a great extent in the other republics too) is Pedagogija by Ljubomir Panceta and Milena and Nikola Potkonjak, a course intended principally for intending elementary school teachers but extensively used by others as well.

The course falls into five parts, thus: I. Fundamentals of

Pedagogy; II, Education of all-round socialist personality; III, Didactics; IV, Fundamental factors in socialist upbringing; and V, The contemporary system of education and its pedagogic basis in certain countries. A summary of the main topics shows the similarities with other West European schemes, as well as some differences of arrangement and content:

I. Fundamentals of pedagogy

1. The subject and tasks of pedagogy.

Society and upbringing (vaspitanje); upbringing as an essentially and constantly social function; the socio-historical character of upbringing; the class character of upbringing; upbringing as a human activity; the essential characteristics of upbringing in socialist social structures. (Education in the primitive community; education in slave society; education in feudal society; education in bourgeois society. The distinctive features of education in socialist society.)

Upbringing and education (obrazovanje) as fundamental pedagogic processes; definition of vaspitanje and obrazovanje, and the relationships between them.

The subject of socialist pedagogy. The development of pedagogic science (origin and significance of the terms 'pedagogue' and 'pedagogy'; origin and content of pedagogic science; the development of socialist pedagogic theory;

the development of pedagogy in Yugoslavia.) The relationship of pedagogy to other sciences; the system of pedagogic disciplines; the tasks of socialist pedagogy.

2. The methodology of pedagogy.

General problems of pedagogic scientific research.

The concept and significance of scientific research in pedagogy; characteristics of scientific research in pedagogy; the fundamentals of scientific pedagogic research; the process of scientific research in pedagogy ... Use of contemporary techniques in research.

Methods of scientific pedagogic research ... The historical scientific research method ... The descriptive scientific research method ... Methods of pedagogical experiment ...

Pedagogical research techniques and instruments. Concept of research techniques and instruments; general requirements which must be satisfied by every research technique and instrument. (Observation; questioning; interviewing; recording; use of sociometric techniques; classification and scaling.)

The primary school teacher and pedagogic research.

3. The educator (vaspitač) with reference to the pupil.

The teacher's need for knowledge of the pupil.

Factors in the development of personality: Heredity; the role of the social medium; relationship between heredity and environment; upbringing as a factor in the development of personality; activity as a factor in the development of personality. One-sided interpretations of individual factors in the development of personality. Basic problems in the process of development of personality; growth, maturation (sazrevanje) and development (razvijanje); stages in the development of personality; individual peculiarities (osobenosti) of the teacher and pupil; the position of the teacher and pupil in the process of upbringing.

4. The aim of upbringing

On the aim of upbringing; the aim of upbringing in a socialist society; the aim of upbringing in the SFRY; the aims and tasks of upbringing in the basic school.

5. The Educational system of the SFRY.

Characteristics of the system of education (školstva) in pre-war Yugoslavia; the educational (obrazovno-vaspitni) system in the SFRY; (Construction and development of the system; basic characteristics of the system; outline of the educational system of the SFRY.)

Characteristics of individual institutions in the educa-

tional system: (Institutions and forms of pre-school education; the basic school; vocational education in schools and other educational institutions ... the gimnazija; special educational institutions and schools; higher and high schools (više i visoka škole), faculties and art academies; institutions for the education and further training of teachers; boarding schools; institutions and forms of adult education).

social self-government in education (u školstvu i prosveti).

6. Upbringer-teacher (vaspitač - nastavnik).

II. Education of all-round socialist personality.

7. General principles and methods of socialist upbringing.

Principles of socialist upbringing: (socialist humanism; total activity; organization of upbringing work; upbringing in and for the collective; guidance in judging growth and individual characteristics; united use of all factors in upbringing.)

Methods and media of socialist upbringing: (assurance and persuasion; practice and habituation; encouragement; prevention.)

8. Physical and health education.

9. Intellectual education.

(Concept and tasks of intellectual education ... scientific knowledge; skills and understanding; creation of the basis of a scientific world view; development of intellectual powers and individual personality; .... linking education and instruction with productive work ..; general and vocational education.

10. Aesthetic education.

11. Moral education.

The concept of morality; the social and class nature of morality; moral norms and moral consciousness; moral sanctions and moral conscience; moral personality.

a. Concept, tasks, and content of moral education.

Methods of moral education. (This section distinguishes between moral education and instruction in morals - N.G.)

c. Bringing in Yugoslav socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism (distinguished from bourgeois nationalism, chauvinism and cosmopolitanism - N.G.)

Education in socialist discipline: concept of socialist discipline, work discipline, discipline of behaviour, attitudes to social property.

Education in socialist relationships between peoples. (Education for humanism, collectivism, comradeship, friendship, and correct relationships between the sexes). (This last is mainly about equality and the desirability of treating girls and women as people, and not merely with regard to their actual or potential sexual role). - N.G.

III. Didactics

12. Subject and tasks of didactics.

13. Concept and essence of instruction.

The relationship between the teacher and pupil in teaching. The teaching (nastavni) process: the learning process; the process of learning and the process of teaching (učenje); sources of knowledge and instruction; analysis of the teaching process; reinforcement of knowledge; development of understanding and skill; application of knowledge and skill; formation of the basis of a scientific world outlook through instruction; motives in teaching and instruction; cultivation of intellectual and physical work in teaching.

The principal characteristics of our basic school.

14. Principles of didactics.

Scientific method ...; determining instruction according to the pupil's developmental stage; individualisation of instructional work; rationalisation and economy in

instruction; systemisation and sequence ... activity of the pupil; the visual principle; linking theory and practice; durability of knowledge.

15. The content of Instruction.

(urricula and syllabuses, etc.)

1.. [illegible] instructional work.

instructional methods (including a section on the classification and choice of methods - B.G.)

[illegible] of verbal exposition, or monologue (story); dialogue method; methods of work with a text; demonstration methods; graphic work; methods of laboratory and practical work; educational excursions; unity and correlation of instructional methods.

Instructional tasks (group, individual, etc.

Programmed instruction.)

Textbooks; instructional apparatus.

17. The organisation of instruction.

The development of the class-subject system of instruction. (Komensky, Herbert, the Dalton plan, the complex method, the core method.)

The organisation of instruction in our basic work.

(The class and the department; the teaching hour - the basic organisational unit of instructional work, etc.

The arrangement of lessons.)

18. Reinforcement, revision and practice in instruction.

19. Pupils' homework.

20. Testing and assessment.

21. Planning of instructional work.

22. Pedagogi documentation.

23. Organisation of work in the "little school".
(i.e. the small multi- class rural school - N.G.)

IV. Fundamental Factors in Socialist Upbringing

24. Upbringing in the family.

25. Pre-school education.
(Among other topics, the role of play in the pre-school period, and the kindergarten's work in preparing the child for school, are dealt with - N.G.)

26. The basic school as an independent socio-pedagogic institution.
Short review of the development of the basic school:
(The first state regulations on schools; the bourgeois state and the school; the working class in the struggle for the right to education and for a democratic school; the development of our unified eight-year school.)

The school and the community; the school and the media of production; self-management in the schools; the planning of school work; the pupil's need for prolonged stay in the school.

27. Family-school relations.

28. The League of Pioneers of Yugoslavia.

V. Contemporary system of education and its pedagogical basis in certain countries.

29. The system of public education in the Soviet Union.

30. Pedagogic fundamentals and main characteristics of the educational system of the USA.

31. The contemporary system of education in England, and the fundamental pedagogical ideas on which it is based.

It can be seen right away that although there is the expected national emphasis, although there are important differences in tone - much less dogmatic insistence on one correct viewpoint, for example; although suspect practices like objective testing find a place, and although concepts such as "socialist humanism" are more flexibly conceived, and although, by the very nature of the Yugoslav system, teachers have more room for individual and group initiative in the classroom and the course is geared accordingly,

the general similarity of the pattern to the Soviet and other East European courses is clear enough. So, indeed, are the principles on which it is based, namely the close dependence of teaching practice on didactic theory, its dependence on more general pedagogic principles, and the close connection between these and the basic social, political and ideological concepts that are intended to inform the entire body of educational thought.

In essence, then, the Yugoslav course in pedagogy illustrates the closeness of pedagogic thinking to that of the other communist countries in fundamentals, and at the same time makes it clear that there is ample room for variation in detail and interpretation. When it is remembered that this course, of all those sampled, is the least likely to be based on a Soviet model, it seems likely that in eastern Europe at least there is felt to be an essentially Marxist approach to educational theory, and that whether it is largely borrowed (as in East Germany) or built up from first principles, there is still a close "family relationship".
(The list of recommended reading gives the same impression; see the Appendix for details).

4. Teaching Practice

From theory, we turn to practice. We have already seen something, in the course of considering the curricula of the various training establishments, of the availability of time for teaching practice in the schools and elsewhere. Teaching practice, however, does not usually involve putting the students in charge and leaving them to sit in on a few lessons, take some of their own, and perform a number of sample lessons to get a teaching mark, with their tutors trying to make themselves as inconspicuous at the back of the class; on the contrary, the organisation of practice can be as elaborate as any other part of the course. Let us look at a few examples.

In the Soviet pedagogic institutes, teaching practice in schools takes place in the 3rd and 4th years of the four-year courses, or the 4th and 5th years of the five-year courses, and is designed, according to the official syllabus,[65] to become "progressively more complex at each stage of the student's course". The aims of teaching practice are nothing if not ambitious, as the preface to the syllabus makes clear:

> Pedagogic practice ... has the following aims:
>
> (a) to teach students to apply in practice the knowledge acquired in the institute;
>
> (b) to teach future teachers to plan and carry out independently instructional-upbringing work in their specialisms and, in the capacity of class leader, for

the organisation and fostering of the class collective;

(c) to foster in the students a love of the pedagogic profession;

(d) to inculcate an interest in scientific research work, and in the spreading and analysis of the leading experience of the school;

To teach pupils to perceive the inter-disciplinary connections and the interconnections of theory and practice, to nurture deep convictions in ideals, in accordance with the psychological characteristics of their age ..... To teach .... intellectual activity, to develop love of knowledge, special and general interests, encouraging such characteristics as persistance, systematic work, hard work and will-power.

In the course of all pedagogic practice, progressively to bring into effect in life the Leninist principle that the school must give young people the fundamentals of knowledge and intellectual skill to work out communist objectives by themselves.

It is recognised, of course, that anything approaching this can hardly be left to chance. Accordingly:

The successful implementation of these aims depends to a considerable extent on efficient organisation,

> planning of practice, and opportune help for the students from the staff of the VUZ and the school .... It is necessary, in the period of preparation for practice, to organise an instructional methods seminar for the students ..., to check the students' readiness for teaching practice in the schools, to acquaint them with new developments ..., and give recommendations and advice on the solution of problems of theory and leading practice in the school.

At the beginning of the period of practice, then, the student, fresh from preparatory seminars, spends the first week "getting to know the school, the class, and the organisation of upbringing work with pupils". But it is not left at that; the very details of the introductory week are spelled out, specifying discussions with the school director, the senior leader (rukovoditel') of the school, the secretary of the Komsomol organisation, the subject teacher and class leader, visiting lessons and extra-curricular activities, studying school and class documentation, and so forth. During this preliminary period, the student is required to attend all the lessons taken by his own class (including those in other subjects), in order to "study the level of knowledge and the individual characteristics of the pupils", and to attend their clubs and circles as well. The syllabus adds that they should also "associate with pupils" in their spare time (though many students deny that they have any left).

Having made this study of the class, the student is then expected to draw up a plan of work for the whole practice period, broken down into series of lessons and individual lessons, some of which are to be planned in detail.

This is all in the first week. From the second, the student takes two or three lessons a week, under the guidance of the regular teacher; these are also attended by the other students in practice in the same school, and analysed in discussion groups afterwards. Provision is also made for practice in the use of audio-visual equipment, working with children suffering from learning difficulties, taking children on excursions, participating regularly in one or two clubs or subject circles, lesson-planning, participation in the work of the school methods group, and "study of the work of the school for the improvement of the ideological-political level and methodological qualifications of the teachers and class leaders". He must make an attempt to integrate the various elements, too:

> special attention is to be paid to .... realising the unity of instructional and upbringing tasks in the lesson, to the formation of a communist world view by the children, and to the ability to link instructional with extra-curricula work.

At the same time, the student works as an assistant to the class leader (analogous to a "form teacher"), which again involves a formidable list of tasks. Among other things, he has to draw up

a plan for "pupil observation", study the problems of individual pupils by observing them in class, by using school dossiers, visiting pupils at home (a normal duty for class leaders), holding discussions in the school with pupils and their parents, and enter all this in his diary or record of his practice period. In addition to general study and observation, two or three individual case studies are carried out in depth with reference to the children's family background as well as school performance. Work with the class collective and Pioneer organisation, of course, comes under this heading as well. At the end of the period, an attempt is made to come to some conclusions on the results, estimating the personal as well as academic progress of the pupils under study, and drawing up a plan of upbringing work for the following term on the basis of these observations.

All of this, together with a variety of activities in the teachers' and trade union organisations calculated to "train the student as a public-spirited person", takes up one term in the first year of practice. In the second year (the last one of the course), teaching practice goes on for an entire half-year. This time is spent, roughly, in much more of the same, the aim being "to consolidate the knowledge and skills" acquired in the previous year, to take on more complicated and responsible tasks, to work out (and implement) more detailed plans of instruction in the special subject and in the complex of activities known as "upbringing work". In short, the student is totally involved in the whole range of duties expected of a teacher in school, for

beyond the mere teaching of subject material, and does so in continuous consultation with the staff of the school and the other students. By keeping a detailed record of work and by taking part in a final conference in the institute with other students and tutors at the end of teaching practice, the student is also expected to learn from the experience of others, and to enrich theirs.

We shall see later that, the syllabus notwithstanding, the reality is not always like this. It must be recognised also that even when the requirements are substantially met the students are liable to feel overwhelmed - not only with the sheer volume of work, considerable though that is, but by the demands made on their abilities and skill. Some have argued that there is some positive merit in this:

> In days full of uncertainty and uneasiness spent among the pupils, many of my doubts and fluctuations were resolved, my confidence in the rightness of my choice of profession was confirmed, and my absorbtion and interest in the work of a teacher ripened.[63]

This is the comment of a survivor; but it is clear from numerous sources that many others, not surprisingly, are made of less stern stuff. The syllabus, even at its best, certainly asks a great deal of the students.

Nor is this all. In the 2nd or 3rd year (depending on the

length of the course), students are also required to put in a period (four weeks as a rule) of practice in Pioneer camps, "the pedagogic institutes' basis ... for the practical training of students for work in the communist upbringing of the pupils in the school". This work is also prescribed in some detail (see Appendix iv), and covers most of the areas of upbringing work already met in the syllabus in pedagogy and school practice.[67] Among more general tasks, the students have to give particular attention to the following:

1. Work for the organisation of the collective of the detachment (otryad, the unit corresponding to a school class).
2. Socio-political upbringing.
3. Labour upbringing.
4. Organisation of physical education and health work.
5. Organisation of work for aesthetic upbringing.
6. Naturalist and "local lore" work in the camp.
7. Work for the development of the Pioneers' technical activity.

Not only are the various activities treated in some detail, but the links between these and educational desiderata are (metaphorically) heavily underlined. For example, one suggested theme under the heading of "aesthetic upbringing" is "Nature excursions as a means of upbringing in love of the Motherland and feeling for the beautiful". At the end of the period, students are expected to submit an essay on some theme on upbringing work (not all like the one mentioned above) in the light of their experience of Pioneer work. Just as the work of the youth organisations is treated as an adjunct to the educa-

tional system in general, so practice in their activities is regarded as an integral part of the teacher's preparation in "upbringing work". "They have to learn to be not only teachers of subjects, but teachers of children" is a phrase as frequently heard in the pedagogic institutes and schools as in their equivalents in this country, but with a particular emphasis and more detailed and specific aims.

Teaching practice in other institutions follows generally similar lines, with changes in emphasis according to the level of school which the student will enter. Pedagogic school students training as elementary school teachers spend a week studying the specific problems of "The first days of the child in school" before beginning regular practice, and future kindergarten teachers, in addition to ordinary practice in pre-school establishments, spend six weeks in farm kindergartens in the summer, seasonal establishments being an important part of the system in the countryside. University students spend less time on practice than students in pedagogic institutes, and pay rather more attention to subject teaching than the other activities. The pedagogic schools, in addition to continuous period of practice, send students into the schools for single days during the ordinary course. Pioneer camp practice, however, is common to all types, with the obvious exception of students in the pre-school course, who will not be dealing with children of the appropriate age.

In Rumania, teaching practice plays a rather smaller role in the course. In the pedagogic institutes, for instance, students spend four hours a week in schools during the second year, and in the third year are sent into schools for two weeks' continuous practice. During this time, as in the Soviet Union, they are expected to take part in the whole range of school activities, such as teachers' meetings, school circles, and out-of-school "cultural activist" work. As far as possible, attempts are made to ensure that practical experience includes some familiarity with rural conditions; nevertheless, not many students are sent to rural schools, even though many of them will teach there. The reasons are mainly financial - the institutes have to pay the fares and/or lodging expenses of such students, and can not afford this on as large a scale as they would like.[6] Another practical consideration is that the urban schools, being larger, can much more easily find room for a number of students without disruption of their work and undue strain on their accommodation. Much of the time, especially in the second year, is spent observing lessons - some given by methods tutors, but more often by the teachers of the schools themselves. Altogether, they observe between 40 and 50 lessons, and teach between 10 and 15 themselves in the presence of the class teacher and methods tutor, discussing them afterwards at length. The final lesson in the series is given a mark to count towards their final assessment.

The universities follow much the same pattern - one day a week in the 8th and 9th semesters, two weeks in the 10th, supervised by members of the Department of Methods and the Department of pedagogy. The problem of manpower, however, is more acute than in the pedagogic institutes, since the numbers of appropriate staff are proportionately less - 27 tutors in this field, for instance, were available to supervise no less than 2000 students in the University of Cluj in 1965. Selected secondary school teachers, therefore, are frequently brought in to help; no less than 109 secondary teachers in 20 schools in Cluj gave assistance as auxiliary tutors in 1965.[69]

More specialised though the students are, their practical work is not exclusively concerned with their specialisms:

> In the actual conditions of teaching practice, the students can be initiated into complex and varied school work, familiarise themselves with the main problems, in teaching their special subjects, and acquire practice in the organisation and guidance of educational activities.
>
> Thus, in addition to the eight lessons they are obliged to teach, the students participate in running certain educational activities, observe and get to know the pupils, make instructional aids, etc.(70)

There is also a ten-day period of practice "in a rural environment" in the fifth year of the course. This does not necessarily mean

teaching in a rural school, but is concerned more with familiarising students with work as "cultural activists" in the countryside. This is not universal, however; some universities do very little work of this kind, and one makes a special point of having achieved "positive results".[71] This type of practice is still regarded as experimental; the authorities would like to see more of it, but are hampered, once again, by practical and financial considerations.

In East Germany,[72] school teaching practice (Pioneer camp practice is reckoned separately) is divided into two distinct phases, namely introductory practice and subject practice; these take up four weeks in the second year and six in the third, respectively, at the higher educational level. Introductory practice is more closely tied in with the content of the course in pedagogy and method, is more closely supervised, and is prefaced by a special course of about 10 seminars and a guided programme of reading. The actual topics dealt with both in seminars and "through observation ... and through direct confrontation with the problems of school practice" may vary "according to local possibilities", but the following are expected to find a place:

1. Aims and tasks of education and instruction in the unified socialist educational system. The central problem is the derivation of ... aims from the furthering of social development and the technical and cultural revolution. Attention is also paid to the problems of general and special education.

2. Survey of the construction of the unified socialist system of education and instruction.

3. Fundamental rules of socialist education and instruction.

4. Organisational-methodological arrangement of instruction under the heading of rationalisation and intensification of learning (e.g. programmed learning.)

5. Planning and preparation of instruction.

6. Themes from the history of education. (3)

Among the practical activities required during this period are work in some form of external education (i.e. evening or correspondence teaching), and visits to a variety of educational institutions other than those related directly to the student's own field; for example, future teachers of the Oberstufe must not only visit the junior classes as well, but kindergartens, special schools, Berufsschulen, youth hostels, etc., and make notes for a report on their observations.

Subject practice need not detain us long here, since it follows a pattern substantially similar to those already described, complete with demonstration lessons, lessons taught by the student under supervision (five at least, which certainly does not seem very many), participation in school and extra-curricular activities, presentation of reports to tutors, discussions of lessons with other students, etc.

Apart from minor variations (e.g. the particular emphasis on hiking and skiing practice as well as spells in Pioneer camps in Czechoslovakia, and the obvious variations in the actual length

of practice from one country to another), the only country in the rest of Eastern Europe which departs radically from the general outlines described is, as usual, Yugoslavia. Even there, this is not immediately apparent; according to an official study of teaching practice arrangements in institutions for the training of primary school teachers,[73] the activities of students during this period include "lessons, supplementary instructional activities, upbringing work with pupils in the class ..., (work) in school hygiene and pupils' holiday activities, ... in the school's public and cultural activities, collaboration with parents, the social organisation and self-management of the school, school documentation and administration". In short, the period of teaching practice is used to familiarise the students with the whole range of the teachers' work, not merely classroom teaching.

The Yugoslav syllabus draws a distinction between concurrent teaching practice (tekući pedagoški praktični rad), in which students go into schools for a prescribed number of hours per week during term, and permanent continuous teaching practice (permanentna kontinuirana pedagoška praksa), a set period of weeks uninterrupted by studies. Concurrent practice is the more closely supervised, and serves as an introduction to school work. According to the appropriate plan,

> "Student teachers are obliged:
>
> To get to know the school as an institution for upbringing and instruction, its internal instructional-upbringing

structure and the factors which operate in it;

To get to know how teachers plan, prepare and carry out lessons, how they organise lessons of various types with regard to the subject and instructional-upbringing tasks, the pupil's development stage, and the specific nature of the instructional material;

To come to understand the ways and means in which the fundamentals and procedures of theoretical pedagogy, didactics and methods are applied in instructional and upbringing work in the school;

To work out the implementation ... of instructional and other types of instructional-upbringing work in the school;

To get to know the work of other institutions ... and organisations in the field of upbringing and education.

Continuous practice takes place in the final year, "when (the students') theoretical and concurrent practical pedagogic education is finished". The objectives of this period of "independent all-day practical pedagogic work in the basic school" are specified as follows:

To round off the theoretical and practical knowledge acquired in the course, and to begin independent application of it in practice ...

> To perceive more deeply, in the continuous process and rhythm of life (of teaching practice), the complex work and problems of the school, its internal organisation, relationships and direction, and its links and relations with the external factors in which it operates;
>
> To perceive and fill the gaps in previous theoretical and practical education;
>
> To make it possible for (the students) to pursue their own education for their vocation.

That is, its function is to reinforce what has been learned already, to give the students more sheer exposure to school conditions, and to give them the chance to do some work on their own. The scheme envisages a combination of group and individual lessons, seminars, visits, but places the emphasis on the students' individual work in the planning and giving of lessons.

There are, however, great differences in the way in which this broad scheme is translated into action. Not only does the amount of time for the different activities vary, but the number of days for concurrent practice, and of weeks for continuous practice, varies from republic to republic and from school to school. The number of test lessons ranges from one to four; some schools manage to arrange four weeks of continuous practice, some only one or even less (though the majority have two). Some schools concentrate practice in schools attached to the training institution, some

spread their students around schools in the town, and some take in rural schools as well; this also varies greatly from place to place. On average, less than 40 per cent of the schools in which students practice are in the countryside - a fact which gives rise to a good deal of complaint, though in fairness Yugoslavia has a higher proportion of students receiving rural preparation than most of the other countries. There seems to be little agreement on the role of teaching practice; the director of one teachers' school where a ten-day period of continuous practice may consider this quite ample, while another, whose students go into the schools for over four weeks, may complain that this is not nearly enough.[7] At the higher educational level, continuous practice usually vanishes altogether; some of the time made available in the curriculum for methods may be used for practical work in schools, but even this does not always happen. Even in university courses where teacher training subjects, including methods, do appear, it is still possible for a graduate to enter the school as a qualified teacher without having done any practice at all.

It is immediately obvious that no generalisation can be made about teaching practice in any quantitative sense, either in absolute terms or as a proportion of course time; when the number of weeks available ranges from over thirty down to none at all, this is out of the question. All that one can safely say is that practice usually exists, and that there is not a great deal of it outside the USSR (2-4 weeks being the most usual allowance). In content, however, there are a number of factors worth noting:

(1) It is assumed that the function of teaching practice goes far beyond subject teaching, and that the student should use this time to familiarise himself with the whole range of activities that fall within a teacher's duties. Even where there are no separate arrangements for practice in Pioneer camps, extra-curricular work figures prominently.

(2) The syllabus of teaching practice is so structured as to emphasise the connections between the theoretical courses in pedagogy, psychology and method and practical school work, both in subject teaching and upbringing.

(3) Close liaison between the methods staff of the training institution and the teaching staff of the school where the practice takes place is assumed, the school teacher often being given the role of honorary methods tutor.

(4) The practice of having "demonstration" schools attached to training institutions, though by no means universal, is common, which makes the kind of co-operation mentioned above rather easier.

The aim, therefore, is to make teaching practice part of an integrated training process, by means of planning and careful supervision, in which educational theory informs practical work in the school, and is in turn enriched by it. Whether it actually works out like this, of course, i another matter, which will be considered in the next chapter.

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Chapter V. Problems in Teacher Training.

1. The U.S.S.R.

So far, we have been concerned with the demands on the teacher training systems in the Soviet Union and the East European countries, and with the structure of the systems and the content of the courses as attempts to meet these demands. How far, then, are the needs answered?

> The condition of the training of new teachers, and the level of the teachers' scientific and pedagogic preparation, do not sufficiently accord with the direction of the schools' development... The following problems remain to be solved:
>
> (a) What sort of changes need to be made in the content of the training of new teachers in pedagogic schools, pedagogic institutes, and universities;
>
> (b) What kind of additional training and further training of various groups of working teachers is needed before the school brings the new curricula and syllabuses into effect;
>
> (c) What scientific, pedagogical and methodological supplies must be prepared and provided for the teachers, so that he may independently find the answers to the problems of strengthening the links between school education and modern achievements in science, technology and culture. [1]

Thus the report of the commission of the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the RSFSR casts doubt on the adequacy of the present Soviet teacher training system to meet the requirements of the new curricula in the schools - partly explicitly, and a great deal more by implication. This is a relatively mild statement; elsewhere, the point is often made more forcefully that there is a great deal wrong with the state of teacher training, from the universities to the pedagogic schools, and over the entire range of activity.

(a) Universities

As we have seen, Soviet university graduates contribute only a small minority of the teaching force; on the other hand, more university graduates enter teaching than any other occupation,[2] so that teacher preparation must be regarded as one of the universities' main functions. Certainly, this is how the authorities see it:

> The whole history of university education in the USSR testifies to an indissoluble link between the universities and the schools. One of the most important tasks of the universities has been and remains the training of highly qualified teachers.[3]

If, on the whole, "this is successfully being carried out",[4] there is still much cause for concern. The work of the universities in producing specialists in the various disciplines is not generally subject to attack (though there have been individual instances at intervals for years),[5] but:

> ...In the pedagogic and upbringing work of the universities there are, unfortunately, many defects. Sometimes one hears that some teachers - graduates of the universities - are distinguished by weak training in the fields of pedagogy and teaching methods, insufficient knowledge of the secondary school syllabuses in their subjects and unhelpfulness in fulfilling their functions as upbringers, class leaders, organisers of circles, etc. It has also happened that university students regard teaching with contempt, and avoid it in every possible way.[6]

The lack of enthusiasm, certainly, is widely commented upon; a great many students, for one thing, make it abundantly clear that they regard teaching only as something they may have to take up if they do less well in their courses than they hope.[7] One commentator, noting that although the universities were ahead of the pedagogic institutes in subject coverage, they are behind in the preparation of teachers for school work, deplores the fact that

> ...teachers who have completed the university courses do not love their profession, they take it up unwillingly, consider themselves temporary guests in the pedagogic field, and at the very first opportunity joyfully get out of school.[8]

All of this makes the figures of numbers of graduates entering

teaching less encouraging than they might otherwise be; although between 60 and 70 per cent do this, there is good reason to believe that many of them go only under direction (there are powers to direct graduates for a period of up to three years), or because they have come too far down the pass-list to obtain the kind of post they wanted. Not only does this mean a high rate of staff turnover in the schools, but it makes it likely that the graduates who do teach will be the less able ones - a point noted in Poland, Yugoslavia and Rumania as well.[9] One of the more obvious reasons for this reluctance - the relatively unfavourable salary position of teachers - is not often mentioned, but other suggested reasons are readily on offer:

> As far as one may judge, one of the basic reasons for this is an incorrect attitude on the part of some professors and lecturers, namely that the university does not really need to train teachers for the most important specialisms. Such lecturers instill in their students the virtues of "pure" learning. It is not surprising that the results of this are deplorable: such a "teacher" comes into the school feeling himself to be a "failure", and does not a little harm to the children, his pupils.[10]

More specifically, the handling of the teacher training courses is attacked, both for insufficiency and lack of depth, as more likely to repel students from teaching than attract them to it. Urging that "a special place" is occupied by the teacher training courses, one authoritative source goes on to concede:

> Much is spoken and written, quite justly, of the log of theory behind our society's need in the science of pedagogy. This, of course, tells particularly strongly against the training of teachers. As in textbooks, so also in lectures, many matters are not explained, only stated. The most important parts of the course are not expounded in sufficient depth, but are discussed abstractly without sufficient analysis of their practical bearing on teaching and upbringing.[11]

In short, the teacher training elements in the university course are all too often made neither attractive nor relevant, but are treated as casual extras, interruptions in the serious business of teaching the specialist subjects. What another author calls "a pedagogic atmosphere"[12] is lacking, with unfortunate effects on the motivation and stability of the teaching force. As another critic puts it:

> Experience shows that a substantial majority of teachers trained in the universities leave pedagogic work. This happens because the universities, as a rule, do not prepare their students psychologically for the work of teaching, and equip them poorly with knowledge of pedagogy and methods. It is no accident that amongst university students the sentiment "If I can't get a job in science, I'll be a teacher" is widely held.
>
> No, we cannot train teachers in this way.[13]

TABLE V. 1

U.S.S.R.: HIGHER AND SECONDARY SPECIALISED INSTITUTIONS : TOTAL NUMBERS AND NUMBERS IN TEACHER TRAINING (IN THOUSANDS). STUDENTS, ENTRANTS, GRADUATES, SELECTED YEARS, 1950-1965

		1950	1958	1960	1964	1965
I.	Higher educational institutions					
	1. Total no. of entrants	1247	2175	2830	3060	3061
	of whom:					
	in universities	88	166	187	262	279
	in pedagogic institutes	450	589	613	768	767
	2. Total no. of entrants	349	486	593	821	854
	of whom:					
	in education	183	143	185	269	271
	3. Total no. of graduates	177	261	348	354	404
	of whom:					
	in education	94	114	139	129	142
II.	Secondary Specialised Schools					
	1. Total no. of students	1280	1870	2060	2520	2650
	of whom:					
	in education	545	157	154	205	223
	2. Total no. of entrants	420	584	764	1039	1200
	of whom:					
	in education	108	59	72	98	102
	3. Total no. of graduates	314	551	494	563	622
	of whom:					
	in education	77	68	49	53	60

Source: Nar. Khoz. 1965, 699-699 (Adapted)

This is pretty devastating, though the fact that the universities do, after all, contribute only a minority of the teaching force may be some consolation. (See Table V 1)[14]

(b) Pedagogic Institutes.

The pedagogic institutes are a much more important source of teachers, as we have seen; but they come under criticism which is, if anything, even more severe. But if the universities are taken to task for over-emphasis on the specialisms, the trouble with the institutes is rather the reverse:

> The theoretical and practical level of the training of teachers in their own specialisms is generally low... The contemporary state of science, and even more the perspectives of its development, are hardly touched on in the course of study. It is not by chance, therefore, that teachers who have completed the pedagogic vuzy are less competent in theory and less learned in their science than teachers who have come into the school from the universities.[15]

Why should this be so? It has to be accepted, of course, that the very length of the periods of study means that pedagogic institute graduates are bound to be less well-equipped than their university counterparts; with four years for one specialism (or five years for two) as compared with five in the universities, it would be surprising if this were not so. Nor are the complaints

universally applicable; many of the larger institutes, such as the Herzen Institute in Leningrad, the Lenin Institute in Moscow, or the foreign language institutes in Moscow, Minsk and Gorkii, do enjoy esteem and achieve standards in teaching and research comparable with many of the universities. But they are not typical; when all due allowances are made for the different course structures, there is still widespread agreement that the level of attainment is in most cases not all it should be. When one commentator[16] says that "far from all pedagogic vuzy make any significant contribution to their particular science", this is a euphemism for "hardly any".

One of the reasons suggested for this state of affairs is the lack of adequate facilities:

> The raising of the level of teacher training requires the establishment for the pedagogic institutes of the necessary conditions for normal instructional, scientific research and upbringing work. The overwhelming majority of those vuzy are found to be in comparably worse condition than any others. Many pedagogic institutes are acutely in need of premises for lecture and seminar study, teaching and scientific laboratories, student hostels, sports halls.[17]

Or again:

> No proposals for improving the work of the pedagogic vuzy will have a chance of success if we do not stop looking on them as second-rate institutions, for whom work black-boards and chalk in the classroom are enough.[18]

This, in turn, overlaps with the problem of staffing:

> The lack of elementary facilities reflects extremely negatively on the educational process, and gives rise to fluctuations of scientific-pedagogic personnel. Many qualified lecturers transfer to the vuzy of other ministries and authorities, where there are much better conditions for educational and scientific research work.[19]

By way of illustration, it is pointed out that the Arkhangelsk pedagogic institute lost 17 docents and candidates of sciences in five years, while Krasnoyarsk pedagogic institute lost 32 in the same period. More generally, the pedagogic institutes are said to have a lower proportion of higher degree holders on their academic staffs than any other category of higher institution.[20]

It is possible to exaggerate this. On the face of it, the available figures are certainly not encouraging. According to a report in Sovietskaya pedagogika (7, 1962):

> At present the 104 pedagogic institutes of the RSFSR are staffed with 13,687 researchers and instructors, of which only 219, or 1.6 per cent, have doctor's degrees and the title of professor, and 4,581, or 33.2 per cent, have the candidate's degree and the title of docent. Thus, two-thirds of the teaching personnel of the higher institutions for teacher training do not have academic degrees and titles.[21]

Taking up this point, an American commentator observes:

> If data for individual subjects such as pedagogy, psychology and methods are supplied, the picture with respect to the doctorate is even more dismal. Of the 935 persons teaching pedagogy in the pedagogical institutes in the RSFSR, only 10, or 1.1 per cent, hold doctorates and 403, or 43.1 per cent are the recipients of the candidate's degrees... For those in teaching methods, the statistics are equally dismal; of 1,027 instructors in methods courses only 13, or 1.3 per cent, and 309, or 30.1 per cent, hold doctorates and candidates' degrees, respectively.[22]

Why this should be considered "dismal" is not altogether clear; the commentary seems to be based on the assumption that the Soviet and American doctorates are equivalent and that the candidates' degree is something lower, which is grotesque. On the much more reasonable assumption that the cadidates' degree is equivalent to the American Ph.D. (allowing for enormous variations in the USA), and recognising that the doctorate is considerably higher, the picture looks a good deal better. Even one third of the staff with Ph.D. is rather more than colleges of education in the U.K. can claim.

The fact remains, however, that the pedagogic institutes prepare specialists in teaching subjects, and thus at least overlap

with the functions of the universities as well as those of the colleges of education in this country. Consequently, comparisons between the institutes and the universities are reasonable enough, and on this basis the institutes show poorly. If the picture, then, is not as bad as some make out, it is still bad enough to deny the pedagogic institutes' claims for parity of esteem with the universities. Certainly, the number of higher degrees awarded in pedagogy and allied subjects is less than one might expect from the numbers taking first qualifications in the field.[24]

But if all is not well on the academic side, the training side of the course is little better. One critic speaks of the "low level of pedagogic and methods training of the future teacher", and complains of "a lack of...firmly based skills in upbringing work with pupils, such as leading technical circles, amateur art activities, pioneer work, etc."

> And this happens, first and foremost, because in the pedagogic institutes...the instructions (obuchenie) and upbringing (vospitanie) of the students still do not flow together in a single stream. Often the basic consideration of the professorial and lecturing staff of the pedagogic vuz is concerned with the student's acquisition of the subject that he will teach in school, but the question of what kind of upbringer the future teacher will be is ignored by many departments.[25]

Among the many other complaints are overloading of students (this one is a hardy annual throughout the higher educational systems), frequent reliance on lecture notes that the students assimilate and regurgitate in examinations, and even the location and size of the institutions. What are sometimes described as "mini-institutes"[26] are held to be too small to provide a sufficient range of courses taught by full-qualified staff, while the remoteness of many of these from "major cultural centres" not only means cultural impoverishment of the students, but a disincentive to the enrolment of students and staff alike. The courses themselves, however, receive most of the blame. The length of course is still a matter of controversy, some pointing out that the last time the basic course was extended to five years the extra time was simply swallowed up with additional course-work; other, however, are "deeply convinced...that for the solution of this problem five years are needed, each complete... (This) cannot long be delayed if we hope for a radical improvement in teacher training."[27]

But changing the length of courses is not enough in itself. As an editorial in the teachers' newspaper Uchitel'skaya gazeta put it:

> The overriding consideration is not the total number of hours, but the content of the sciences, the unity of pedagogy, psychology, specialist subject teaching and teaching practice. There is need for a combined, unified programme.[28]

Indeed, the very frequency of change is itself a cause for complaint, coupled with the suspicion that the changes have all too often been little more than tinkering with the "total number of hours."[29] Sometimes, to be sure, this complaint stems from little more than a simple dislike of change, but in some cases at least it is based on concern for the quality of the students' training and the failure to rethink the courses radically enough. As one critic (already extensively cited) puts it:

> The teacher works in the school for 30-40 years. In order to keep abreast of life...he must possess powers of theoretical thinking, the ability to interpret and generalise, to acquire knowledge independently and utilise it in practical activity. For this, it is necessary to learn to think...above all, independently. In this respect, we are not at the moment training him for the future but...merely seeking to patch up present-day gaps. When a new subject is introduced in the school..., we expand the enrolment of students in this specialism, we open up new faculties. But soon afterwards the subject is dropped from the curriculum, we change the orientation of the faculties, reduce admissions, etc. This happens nearly every year.[30]

The same author complains elsewhere that in the last 15 years the curricula have been radically changed four or five times, that important changes have been introduced nearly every year, and

that the length of course is often altered without any scientific grounds. It is only fair to point out, however, that many members of nedvuz staffs, while accepting many of the foregoing points, do not regard five major changes in 15 years as excessive, though they are more likely to accept the complaint about tinkering with the length of the course.[31]

This particular author makes some even more severe criticisms, not so commonly found elsewhere. Considering the four-year courses, he has this to say:

> In practice, the student studies for less than three years, since in the majority of institutes students in the first three years spend the whole of September and half of October picking potatoes on collective and state farms, and in the fourth year they go out for the entire year on so-called probationary practice, which often does the student and the school nothing but harm... The working week is overloaded, theoretical courses and periods of practice are shortened, special courses and seminars are cancelled, state examinations are held during the holidays. There can be no question of independent work. As the saying goes, God grant time to prepare an intelligent crib.[32]

This has been widely contested, in fact as well as interpretation, by many lecturers and students in pedagogic institutes. (One of

them went so far as to say that these statements were "the outpourings of an idiot", but on the whole they were more moderately described as "exaggerated" or "untypical").[33] It is not easy to be sure about this. Obviously, the practices described here fly in the face of the official curricula and syllabuses, but there is precedent enough for that. Observation on the spot confirms that these statements do not apply to the institutes in the major cities; on the other hand, it is quite likely that malpractices of this kind do take place in some of the smaller institutes away from the "major cultural centres". That this kind of thing happens sometimes is not doubted, while the very fact of the acceptance of such an article as this suggests that they are not altogether exceptional. The allegations that the abuses are so widespread are, however, contested in many quarters, even by people who accept many of the author's other strictures.

When all possible allowances have been made, however, a picture of widespread shortcomings does emerge. Even the most restrained pronouncements speak of "serious defects in the training of teaching personnel",[34] or complain that "many students do not receive profound scientific-theoretical training",[35] or even that the pedagogic institutes "up to now still weakly equip the future teachers in the art of upbringing, and do not pay the necessary attention to nourishing in the students a love of the teaching profession".[36] This may well be the tip of the iceberg; even if the potato-picking institutes <u>are</u> exceptional, there can be little

doubt that there is widespread dissatisfaction, from the ministries to the students and the schools.

(c) Pedagogic Schools

The pedagogic schools, inevitably, come in for their share of criticism too:

> Up to now, scholasticism has flourished in the whole range of (pedagogic) schools, both in instructional and upbringing work. Lessons constructed in a stereotyped way; impersonal upbringing arrangements with regard to the fact that they are intended for future upbringers; treating the students of pedagogic schools like children, to whom no responsible work can be entrusted, and with whom serious enquiry is not possible - all this cannot promote the shaping of cultured, knowledgeable, thoughtful, work-loving teachers of the younger generation.[37]

Sometimes complaints of this kind are specific, as in the case of the pedagogic school director who made a public fuss about the hairstyles of 16 of his girl students; sometimes they are general, such as strictures on absence of tact or "stereotyped and primitive plans of upbringing work" or "treating future teachers in such a way as to suggest no confidence in the pupils."[38] It is well known, of course, that the complaint about "treating students like children" is common in teacher training institutions in many countries, from the French

ecoles normales to some colleges of education in Britain, with varying degrees of justification; it is true also that the majority of peduchilishche students in the Soviet Union are adolescents, but being in the teens does not make childish treatment any more palatable - rather the reverse.

The quality of teaching comes under fire as well. It is accepted that much of their work must be on the same level as that of the general schools, but it is argued that "this does not at all mean that the peduchilishche should be organised only with the traditional type of school lesson".

> In the peduchilishche, the activities are little more than copies of those of the (general) schools; this applies particularly to the general educational disciplines. Not only the lecturers are to blame for this. The teaching of such subjects as mathematics, physics and geography is carried on with school textbooks which, of course, do not promote the search for the most improved form of pedagogic work specific to the peduchilishche. Indeed, the time has come to study seriously the issue of special and really up-to-date educational literature for all disciplines studied in them.[39]

Many of the criticisms of the pedagogic schools seem to stem from their ambiguous role - they are at the same time continuations of the secondary school and institutions of professional training. The school-oriented teaching and lack of tact already

mentioned are not inevitable, but the very youth of the students, and this duality of function, makes them more likely. This was doubtless one of the considerations behind the decision to abolish them altogether and replace them with pedagogic institute faculties for primary teachers - by implication recognising that the pedagogic schools were incapable of meeting the tasks required of them, and that the defects were inherent in their structure. This line has been repudiated, however, particularly since the adoption by the RSFSR Bureaue of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of a resolution "On the condition of, and measures to improve, the training of teachers for the general educational schools of the RSFSR" (1965), which envisaged an important role for the pedagogic schools. As one newspaper commented at the time:

> We are finished with underestimating (the pedagogic schools), with the theory that they have "outlived their usefulness" and must be replaced by the appropriate vuz faculties.[40]

This change of policy was later reinforced by the 1966 resolution of the Central Committee of the CPSU and the Council of Ministers of the USSR "On measures to improve the work of the secondary general educational school".[41] Although, according to the appropriate departmental head of the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR, "The future is with the vuzy",[42] the pedagogic schools still have an important part to play - even an essential one:

> The near future must be marked by large-scale

> success on the part of the pedagogic schools in training a numerous army of qualified primary school teachers. Without this, it is inconceivable that the great tasks facing the country and the people can be realised in good time.[43]

The universities and pedagogic institutes, therefore, are generally agreed to have serious defects, while the institutions with perhaps more defects than any - the pedagogic schools - are there to stay for the time being at least.

It is not an encouraging picture. The universities are weak on the pedagogic side, the pedagogic institutes on the specialist side as well, and the pedagogic schools have shortcomings probably inherent in their very nature. But there are general defects as well, common to the entire training system. The standard of teaching in the pedagogic disciplines is too low at all levels, all too often fails to acquaint students with modern development in the field, and even when there are improvements here (with the introduction of courses in the use of audio-visual aids, programmed learning, etc. - one of the weakest parts of Soviet teaching until very recently),[44] the students are "still weakly prepared for upbringing work with children".[45] The connection between pedagogy, method, practical teaching and upbringing, which we have seen so elaborately worked out in the syllabus, is obviously not working out in practice often enough.

(d) General qualitative problems

Part of the blame for this is put on the organisation of teaching practice. The syllabus for this, as we saw in the previous chapter, is arranged so as to reinforce the links between theory and practice, and the main defect appeared to be over-ambition and over-loading. The trouble is that the syllabus (perhaps predictably) is not always followed. According to an editorial in Uchitel'skaya gazeta, many readers report that in the last few years "the probationary practice laid down in the curricula has been in effect abolished (faktichesk likvidirovana)".[46] Part of the difficulty here is that the effective implementation of the syllabus depends on sufficient numbers of adequately staffed (and motivated) schools; but many students find themselves in understaffed schools where they are simply used as temporary teachers of their own subjects, without having the chance to do anything else.[47] (Once again, this is a commonly observed phenomenon elsewhere.) But the various training institutions are at fault too. The tutors sometimes "stand to one side" and give inadequate guidance; the methods and pedagogy departments often neglect to teach students the use of school documentation or the practical side of school management.[48] Doubtless this is what one critic[49] meant when he said that continuous practice often did the student and the school more harm than good. Even when the practical side is well organised (as, in fairness, it often is), it may still lack relevance as practical preparation. Nearly half the school population, for instance, lives in the countryside, and the primary schools there are particularly

likely to be small. The practice syllabus does allow for this; nevertheless, most students do most, if not all, of their teaching practice in urban schools, and thus "often have a very slight idea of the specific conditions of the incomplete (malokomplektnyi) school".[50]

How far the syllabus is neglected in practice is impossible to discover; in the very nature of things, the evidence is fragmentary and often contradictory. It is clear, however, that even when it is politically feasible to lay down the details of the curriculum and the organisation of teaching practice from the centre, it is quite another matter to enforce them; local conditions, in fact, may make it impossible to carry out central directives, even where there is the will to do so. The opportunities, therefore, for evading requirements or distorting the programme (especially in the sciences, where personnel are in unusually short supply) are considerable. What evidence is available suggests that these opportunities are frequently made the most of in the smaller institutions further away from the main centres.

Original research, particularly at the higher level, is regarded as an important part of the work of the teacher training system, but here too there seem to be serious defects.

> The scientific resources of the country are dispersed. Research is carried on, discontinuously and unharmoniously. The topics are often determined, not by the needs of life, but by the interests and needs

> of the researcher himself...At the moment, there seems to be every opportunity for a creative body (of research), but the opportunities are not being made use of...The present system of organising scientific-pedagogic research leads to duplication of topics, parallelism in work, and unrationalised use of scientific resources.[51]

Much of the blame for this state of affairs has been laid at the door of the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the RSFSR; (the resolution of the RSFSR Bureau of the Central Committee (already mentioned) noted that the Academy was not exerting sufficient influence on the development of research in the field of pedagogy. According to an editorial comment at the time:

> The fundamental reason for such an alarming situation is the very weak link between the Academy and the scientific research institutes of pedagogy of the other republics, and the departments of the universities and pedagogic institutes.[52]

The president of the Academy, I.A. Kairov, recognised that all was not well in his address of 2 March 1965.[53] The lack of co-ordination had gone past the stage of amenability to internal reforms, however; in 1966-1967 the Academy was reconstituted as the Academy of Pedagogic Sciences of the USSR (Kairov being retired and replaced by Khvostov), with the improvement of the co-ordination of research as a major part of its remit.[54]

It will be remembered that an important part of the work of the training institutions was as much ideological as instructional, and that the enrolment of the teacher as a convinced activist was regarded as an integral part of their objectives. A recent editorial, though referring specifically to pedagogical schools, sums up the official view:

> The graduate of the pedagogic school will teach and rear young citizens in the course of ten-year education. Consequently, he needs to be deliberately trained in the perspective of the development of our society... The graduate of the pedagogic school is the warrior of the ideological front, the bearer of party ideas. He must possess a high communist consciousness, sound skills in mass political and upbringing work, and inward strivings for constant improvement of his knowledge, including Marxist-Leninist theory.[55]

So much in theory; in practice, the political side of the courses seems far from effective, judging from the number of calls for its improvement. For instance:

> In the process of teaching the socio-economic disciplines, they (the training institutions) must deeply examine the most important problems of theory and policy of the CPSU, and more actively unmask the reactionary essence of bourgeois ideology. It is necessary to strive

persistently for creative study by the students of Marxism-Leninism.[56]

The implication is clear that this is not being achieved to the liking of the authorities. The reaction of students (reflected in indifference, or in obvious exasperation at the dullness and dogmatism of the political courses) suggests that the authorities do have something to worry about here; but major surgery in this part of the course is politically unacceptable and, with rare exceptions, few attempts have been made to enliven the teaching of such a sensitive group of subjects.

Complaint collecting, however, is as likely to give a misleading impression as taking the paeans of praise too readily at face value. The picture is sombre enough, but not one of unrelieved gloom. As most of the commentators from whom these criticisms have been gleaned are quick to point out, some aspects of the system do work satisfactorily, and there have been major improvements. Some university students, for instance, do take the teaching side of their work seriously, and even elect to do their major diploma project in a pedagogical topic.[57] Some of the pedagogic institutes do achieve high standards in the specialisms as well as the pedagogic courses, and some of them do maintain effective relations both with the schools and with the Academy and the Ministries. Even at pedagogic school level, some can be (and are) singled out for commendation for good teaching, effective programme-planning, a high level of student participation, etc.[58]

Teaching practice can be both well-planned and flexible, and flexible, and generally there are plenty of examples (and not only those eagerly seized on in the press) of students whose training effectively equips them for teaching and stimulated their interest in it. It is worth noting, too, that the standards against which success is being measured are high, as we saw at the beginning of Chapter IV. While some of the critics are willing to settle for moderate competence, others will be satisfied with nothing less than dedication. Both, necessarily, are doomed to some disappointment - in the second case, a great deal. Some problems, such as the drift of university graduates from teaching, may have little to do with the quality of their training; the competition from other fields is often too strong, many of them were only directed into teaching in any case, and it is too much to expect "love of the pedagogic profession" always to prevail over the attractions of salary, status and sometimes interest. Comparative studies of different areas of the Soviet Union suggest that this pressure is growing, and that as the more backward areas become more prosperous the proportion of graduates going into school teaching falls.[59] Some at least of the failures of the training system lie outside its control.

Whatever the reasons, however, the failings and problems are acute. The critic who remarked, "No, we cannot train teachers this way"[60] (v. s.) may have been exaggerating; they can, and they do. But in doing so, they have to recognise that

TABLE V. 2

U.S.S.R.: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY QUALIFICATION AND EXPERIENCE 1968-69

	Number of teachers (000)	Percentage of total with qualifications from:					Years of experience	
		Higher * education	Teachers** Inst., etc.	Secondary pedagogic	Other spec. secondary	No Secondary	5 or less	25 or more
All teachers: 1968-1969	1755	28.9	28.1	41.8	5.1	1.6	21.4	8.1
1965-1966	2251	41.5	14.0	34.3	8.6	1.6	22.7	13.1
of whom:								
Directors of elementary schools	42	3.4	6.2	32.5	7.4	0.5	12.2	27.3
Directors of eight-year schools	62	76.6	10.7	8.0	0.7	0.0	5.7	24.0
Directors of secondary schools	58	96.7	3.1	0.1	0.1	*	2.8	39.0
Deputy Directors of eight-year schools	47	71.7	21.0	6.0	1.3	0.0	9.5	14.2
Deputy Directors of secondary schools	64	88.7	8.2	4.8	3.1	0.2	9.0	17.2
Teachers of classes:								
I-IV	672	6.9	7.6	77.4	7.9	0.4	10.4	16.0
V-VIII	777	58.9	24.8	10.8	5.9	0.1	26.0	10.1
IX-XI	251	89.1	7.0	1.8	1.9	0.1	20.0	11.4
Music, drawing, PE., labour etc.	254	16.0	7.1	38.9	32.8	13.1	40.7	6.4

Source: Nar Khoz 1969, 632

* "Higher education" = pedagogic institutes and universities, plus a few others (e.g. art colleges)

** Teachers' Institutes no longer exist

in many cases they are not doing it very effectively, and that there is a danger (if it has not happened already) of turning teaching into an under-trained and sub-standard profession; they also have to recognise that this is true of higher as well as secondary training institutions - which must be alarming if, as one editorial has it, "The fulfilment of the tasks facing the school is inseparable from the radical improvement of teacher training".[61] Qualitatively, there remains a great deal to be done.

(c) General quantitative problems

But there are quantitative problems too, against which attempts to deal with the qualitative defects have to be seen.

One of the most important is supply, touched on in Chapter III. Between 1958 and 1965, the teacher supply position worsened. True, there was an impressive increase in the number of teachers in the general schools, from 1,900,000 to 2,497,000; but in the same period the number of pupils rocketed from 31,483,000 to 48,255,000, thus raising the pupil-teacher ration from 16.57 : 1 to 19.33 : 1.[62] Now in this all. There are local shortages, sometimes acute, especially in some of the minority republics and remote areas.[63] Further, the figures for teacher supply do not tell the whole story; there is considerable dilution, as has been touched on in Chapter III, and as can be seen in more detail in Table V 2.[64] "Higher education" here includes university and pedagogic institute qualifications, and teachers' institutes are obsolete. Secondary specialised qualifications (other than from

TABLE V. 3

U.S.S.R.: DISTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS BY SUBJECT AND QUALIFICATION IN CLASSES V-VIII AND IX-XI IN GENERAL SCHOOLS, 1965 - 1966

	CLASSES V - VII				CLASSES IX - XI			
	Number of teachers (000)	% with qualifications from: Higher education	Teachers' Insts. etc.	Secondary (ped. & other)	Number of teachers (000)	% with qualifications from: Higher education	Teachers' Insts. etc.	Secondary (ped. & other)
Russian lang. & lit. in Russian schools	142	58.4	25.6	11.0	87	82.4	6.0	1.6
Russian lang. & lit. in non-Russian schools	58	55.6	25.2	19.2	16	86.0	10.5	3.5
Mother tongue and literature	76	68.7	23.5	7.8	22	90.4	7.2	1.3
History	93	68.2	22.5	9.3	44	89.2	5.7	1.1
Physics	40	63.3	20.7	15.5	35	92.3	6.0	1.7
Mathematics	142	54.0	27.9	18.1	49	92.2	6.2	1.6
Physics and mathematics	53	46.8	34.4	18.8	15	83.0	11.7	2.3
Chemistry	35	70.3	18.7	11.0	30	94.3	4.6	1.1
Geography	61	63.7	19.6	11.7	20	90.4	7.5	2.1
General science	70	59.2	24.4	16.4	11	88.3	10.7	3.0
Geography and general science	26	46.4	35.3	18.4	5	77.6	16.5	5.9
Foreign language	94	68.1	13.6	20.3	28	87.5	7.6	4.9

Source: Nar. Khoz. 1965, 632

pedagogic schools) are particularly important, as one might expect, in providing teachers of music, drawing, physical education, etc. The most important facts that emerge from these figures are:

(1) The dilution in classes IX - XI is not serious, once allowances have been made for the fact that graduates of teachers' institutes are disappearing.

(2) Dilution is serious, however, among teachers of classes V - VIII. At first sight, it looks even worse than it is, with only 58.3 per cent holding higher educational qualifications, whereas all are supposed to have them. Once again, we can discount the teachers' institute graduates; but even then, 16.9 per cent are still severely underqualified for work at this stage, most of them coming from pedagogic schools.

(3) The teachers of classes I - IV are overwhelmingly from the pedagogic schools (77.4 per cent), the next biggest category coming from other secondary specialised schools. In spite of attempts to introduce larger numbers of graduates of higher institutions into the primary classes, these still make up a smaller proportion of the teaching force than the graduates of the obsolete teachers' institutes.

(4) In spite of the fact that qualifications for teaching in classes V - VIII and IX - XI are in theory identical, the discrepancy is obvious.

In the light of these figures, some of the concern voiced in the press and the academic journals seems not only justified but assumes a note of increased urgency; also, the decision to retain the (admittedly unsatisfactory) pedagogic schools begins to make some sense. We shall return to this point later.

There are also particularly severe shortages in some teaching subjects, as illustrated in Table V 3.[65] Here, the salient points are:

(1) The discrepancy between the qualifications of teachers of classes V - VIII and IX - XI is again apparent.

(2) Teachers of some of the science subjects (though not all) are more likely to be underqualified than teachers of the humanities, with the exception of Russian in non-Russian schools, at the lower secondary level. Though some of the discrepancies remain at upper secondary level, they are much less obvious.

(3) There is a much heavier concentration of teachers' institute graduates, as well as those of pedagogic schools, among teachers of classes V - VIII. Only in three of the science specialisms (and Russian for non-Russian schools) is the number of teachers' institute graduates in classes IX-XI over 10 per cent.

All this suggests:

(1) That there is a particular shortage of specialists in some of the science subjects.

(2) That the upper secondary classes get a higher share of specialists in all subjects.

(3) That the upper secondary classes have preferential treatment in replacing staff who have obsolete qualifications; and

(4) That the preferential treatment of the upper classes is particularly strong in the case of the scarcer specialists.

Finally, there is a particular shortage of teachers in the rural areas. As recently as 1967, it was reported[66] that in the Omsk oblast' the proportion of teachers of classes V - XI who had the required higher educational qualifications was as low as 35 per cent, and there are many similar examples. Nor does dilution of this kind give the entire measure of the problem; many schools lack even enough dilutees to staff themselves adequately, and overcrowding is common. There are reports of some improvement in particular areas,[67] but on the whole the problem remains stubborn.

The reasons for this state of affairs is not far to seek. There is still a large number of small schools; about 70 per cent of the country's primary schools have under 40 pupils, and about 20 per cent have less than 20,[68] which is bound to be disproportionately heavy on teacher supply. Further, teachers are reluctant to go into the countryside; the abolition of pay differentials between urban and rural teachers in 1964[69] has not been enough to tempt teachers into the villages, or even to stop

TABLE V.4

U.S.S.R : THE RURAL PROBLEM. PUPILS IN GENERAL EDUCATIONAL SCHOOLS (FULL-TIME) BY AREA, 1940-1965

	1940-41	1950-51	1958-59	1960-61	1964-65	1965-66
Total pupils (millions)	34.8	33.3	29.6	33.4	42.9	43.4
of whom:						
Urban	10.8	11.8	13.7	16.1	20.9	21.8
Rural	24.0	21.5	15.9	17.3	21.1	21.6
Classes I-IV (total)	21.4	18.7	17.7	18.0	19.3	20.2
of whom:						
Urban	5.4	6.2	7.6	8.4	9.8	9.5
Rural	16.0	12.5	10.1	10.2	10.6	10.7
Classes V - VIII (total)	11.9	12.9	9.6	13.2	17.7	18.1
of whom:						
Urban	4.6	5.1	4.8	6.7	8.8	9.1
Rural	7.3	7.7	4.8	6.5	8.9	9.0
Classes IX - XI (total)	1.2	0.7	2.2	1.5	4.2	4.8
of whom:						
Urban	0.7	0.4	1.2	0.9	2.5	3.0
Rural	0.5	0.3	1.0	0.6	1.6	1.8

Source : Nar. Khoz. 1965

them drifting to the towns. Rural authorities are supposed to provide teachers with free housing, heating and light, and a plot of land for their own use, but there are frequent complaints that these requirements are not met, or met only inadequately.[70] The policy of directing graduates to particular jobs is not a great success. Many find some way of avoiding it, many simply do not go, others go but stay for less than the full term. (Even legal sanctions seem to be of little use.) Even when they do go and serve the full three years, they usually move back to the cities as soon as they possibly can.[71] This makes for an extremely high rate of turnover, unsettling for any school; and, since the choice of jobs is given to the best graduates in order of merit, it often happens that the rural schools are given the leavings. It is open to serious doubt whether this problem is amenable to solution by improvement of the training system or re-siting of institutes; it probably has far more to do with the gap between town and country in amenities and living standards. The figures given in Table V 4[72] show a much smaller proportion of the age-group staying in school beyond the end of compulsory schooling in the countryside than in the towns (nearly half the population is rural). Much of the gap could be attributed to remoteness, lack of facilities, lower aspirations, etc.; the figures are also consistent with the commonly expressed view that standards of teaching and attainment are significantly lower in the rural areas.

2. Yugoslavia

(a) Universities

The problems of the other Eastern European countries are of a similar nature, if sometimes rather less acute. In Yugoslavia, for example, there are frequent complaints about the standard of pedagogic teaching in the universities. According to one official of the Yugoslav Foundation for Educational Research in Belgrade:

> On the whole, we are sorry to say that it (the teaching of education courses) is very bad. Some faculty curricula do not have those courses at all; and in some that do, we feel it might be better if they left them alone. The trouble is that many of our universities do not take the professional preparation of teachers seriously enough. If they teach the specialist subjects sufficiently, they feel that their job is done.[73]

This is a little harsh in some cases, but it is true that in many Yugoslav university courses this side of professional preparation leaves a great deal to be desired. We have seen from a look at the curricula how variable the formal arrangements are: one or two university teachers describe the situation as "flexible", but according to others the term "chaotic" would be more appropriate.[74]

The position here is something of a vicious circle. The generally poor quality of education courses in the universities leads to the general undervaluing of these subjects, which in turn makes it difficult to divert sufficient time or resources to raise the level.

There have been attempts to regularise the position of such courses at the universities; or, alternatively, to institute compulsory courses of post-graduate training. Both suggestions have been very coolly received, and so far little progress has been made in this direction.[75]

With less than 14 per cent of university graduate teachers employed in basic schools,[76] however, it is often argued that this matters less than it might. Most of them teach in gimnazije, where the pedagogic skills of the teacher are frequently held to be less important - an arguable proposition, but one which is often put forward.[77] Further, they are numerically insignificant compared with the teaching force as a whole - gimnazija teachers account for less than 6 per cent of all teachers.[78] To shrug off the problem is doubtless a mistake, but it is certainly true that the greatest problems in Yugoslav teacher training lie elsewhere, if only on numerical grounds.

(b) Yugoslavia - Higher Pedagogic Schools

But the higher pedagogic schools suffer from problems of their own, and on a wider scale than the universities. This time, the focus of criticism is not the education courses (though there has been some complaint here), but on the level of preparation in the special subjects. These schools, it will be remembered, are designed to produce subject specialist teachers for the lower secondary stage. (In point of fact, over one-third of teachers at this level have lower qualifications, but that is another matter.)[79] They are not, however, limited to this in practice; the pressures

TABLE V. 5

YUGOSLAVIA : TEACHERS BY TYPE OF SCHOOL AND NUMBER OF SUBJECTS TAUGHT BY EACH 1965

Type of School	Total No of Teachers	% teaching number of subjects : non-tchg	1	2	3	4 or over
Basic School *	91,105	3.6	62.3	19.0	6.5	6.6
Gimnazija	5,641	2.8	59.2	28.6	7.0	2 5
Technical school	3,523	2.5	58.3	23.2	9 5	6.5
Apprentice School	3,000	4.4	50 1	23 5	11.7	10.3
Economic School	2,801	3.1	57.3	27.5	6 2	5.9
Medical school	1,530	3.0	67.2	20.9	5.7	3.2
Art School	1,417	2.0	65.4	16.5	7.8	8.3
Teachers' School	1,755	3 0	52 7	27.9	9.2	7.2
Special School	1,090	0.5	64.3	13.8	8.9	6.5
Adult School	2,232	3.6	61.2	23.5	7.8	3.9

* Primary school subjects are reckoned as one subject for this purpose.

Source : Statistički Bilten 340, Belgrade 1965

TABLE V 6

YUGOSLAVIA : BASIC SCHOOL TEACHERS BY NUMBER OF SUBJECTS TAUGHT, BY REPUBLIC 1985

Republic	Total No. of Teachers	% teaching number of subjects : non-tchg.	1	2	3	4 or over
Bosnia and Herzegovina	12,421	3.2	67.7	10.6	7.5	5.0
Montenegro	2,974	3.7	58.4	10.6	10.5	7.5
Croatia	19,065	3.0	54.9	20.7	10.7	6.6
Macedonia	8,306	2.8	70.0	16.4	6.2	4.0
Slovenia	8,941	1.9	51.7	23.6	12.7	10.1
Serbia	38,498	4.1	65.5	18.6	7.1	5.0
of whom :						
Serbia proper	23,853	4.1	67.0	17.8	6.9	4.2
Vojvodina	9,627	4.6	61.9	21.1	7.8	4.6
Kosovo-Metohija	5,018	3.7	64.4	16.7	7.1	9.1

Source : Statistički Bliten 846 (Belgrade 1985)

of teacher shortage have led to the higher pedagogic schools providing nearly 15 per cent of the gimnazija staff as well[80] - all this with a two-year course at the end of upper secondary schooling. In many cases, too, the student has to qualify in two subjects at a time; and even though the numbers teaching more than two subjects are not large (see Table V 5, 6),[81] they do exist. It is beyond debate that qualifications at this level are inadequate for upper secondary work even in one subject; that is not what they are intended for, and the need to use higher pedagogic school graduates in the gimnazije is generally deplored. But there have been strong criticisms of the adequacy of these courses for lower secondary work either - nobody in the higher pedagogic schools pretends that two years are enough.[82] Even the existing standards are possibly too high for such a short course; the alarming failure rate suggests that this is so.[83] It is reported, also, that heavy reliance is placed on cramming and regurgitation for examinations;[84] this is perhaps inevitable in the circumstances, but nevertheless has serious implications for the professional capacity of the teacher in the school - where, it will be remembered, he will have to exercise rather more initiative than his colleagues in other Eastern European countries.[85] Since many of the students of these schools have been through the teachers' schools rather than the gimnazije,[86] their pedagogic training is rather better than one might expect from an examination of the curricula; it is often conceded that they are usually more competent in this respect than university-trained teachers. On the other hand, the gap between the two groups in

TABLE V 7a

YUGOSLAVIA : LENGTH OF TEACHING PRACTICE AND NUMBERS OF TEXTBOOKS IN EDUCATION COURSES IN TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS

	Total No of Schools	of which, % with No. of weeks' teaching practice				
		1-	1	2	3	4
Teachers' schools - total of which :	50	3	10	26	7	3
4-year schools	12	2	3	7	-	-
5-year schools	38	1	10	19	7	3
% of total	100.0	6.0	20.0	50.0	14.0	6.0
Higher schools - total of which :	24	-	6	17	1	1
Higher pedagogic schools	11	-	3	8	-	-
Pedagogic academies	13	-	3	9	1	1
% of total	100.0	-	30.8	70.8	4.1	4.1
% of all types	100.0	-	24.3	53.7	10.7	6.0

TABLE V 7b

	Number of Textbooks		
	1 - 3	4 - 5	6 or over
Teachers' schools :			
Pedagogy	44.0	42.0	14.0
Psychology	43.7	37.6	18.7
Methods	21.5	23.5	55.0
Higher Schools :			
Pedagogy	28.0	24.0	48.0
Psychology	28.0	28.0	44.0
Methods	11.1	1.1	87.0

Source : JZPSPP, Belgrade,1964. Ref. 09.

mastery of their specialisms is wide - much wider, for example, than between the universities and pedagogic institutes in the USSR.

(c) Yugoslavia - Teachers' Schools

As for the teachers' schools, the main strictures are that the students are liable to be turned out into the schools at too immature a stage; further, they are said to be "too much like school" - the familiar complaint again - and that the standard of work in the pedagogic disciplines is rather weak on the theoretical side. This, as we have seen, varies greatly in quantity, and the same is true of the quality. At best, these schools do give a reasonable practical training in work with young people, especially at kindergarten level - one Italian writer feels that some of them are quite impressive[87] - but at worst they offer little more than a somewhat narrow version of the gimnazija course plus some rather unimaginative teacher training. In some cases, teaching practice takes up less than two weeks, in others even less (see Table V 7a.[88] As for the courses in pedagogy, psychology and method, not all are as thorough as the outline described in the previous chapter. Generalisation is hazardous here, but in so far as the length of reading lists is any guide to standards, it is worth noting that while the majority of teachers' schools require six or more textbooks in methods courses, the reading on the theoretical side is less demanding; in nearly half of the schools, pedagogy and psychology are studied through three textbooks or less. In this, as in other things, the gap between the teachers' schools and the higher pedagogic schools (or pedagogic academies) is considerable. (See Table V 7b.)[89] Finally, the teachers of education subjects

TABLE V. 8

YUGOSLAVIA : TEACHERS OF EDUCATIONAL SUBJECTS IN TEACHER TRAINING INSTITUTIONS BY QUALIFICATIONS (%) 1962 - 1968

	Higher Pedagogic Schools	Secondary Teachers' Schools		
		All	8-year	4-year
Qualifications (%)				
Secondary Teachers' School	-	12.5	14.6	7.8
Higher Pedagogic School	10.9	12.7	0.9	30.1
University (incomplete)	-	1.7	1.8	1.5
University	80.5	65.0	67.0	60.0
Art Academy	3.0	6.0	6.5	4.6
High School of physical education	5.5	-	-	-
Others		1.4	1.8	-

Source : JZPSPP, Belgrade, 1964, Ref. 90

in the teachers' schools are less well qualified than in the higher pedagogic schools. According to an official survey in 1964, 30 per cent had less than university qualifications, as against just over 10 per cent in the higher pedagogic schools. (See Table V 8.)[90]

In a sense, the criticisms of the teachers' schools and the higher pedagogic schools are being rendered irrelevant by the progressive abolition of these institutions and their replacement by pedagogic academies, as described in Chapter III. They still apply, of course, to Serbia, where such schools have been retained for the moment, though there too they are accepted only as a temporary expedient. But the institution of pedagogic academies does not, of itself, solve the problem. In their future form - a three - or even four-year course following the completion of upper secondary schooling - they should provide at least more teaching time for the raising of standards. With one exception, however, they are still only two-year courses, and are thus still beset by the difficulties of overcrowding of curricula, cramming and insufficient standards in the special subjects as are the institutions in the older system. They are, obviously, an advance on the secondary teachers' schools, but can hardly claim to have gone much further than the higher pedagogic schools. The radical improvement of the training of lower secondary teachers, therefore, will have to await the implementation of the provision of the original law on increasing the length of course in pedagogic academies.[91]

TABLE V. 9

YUGOSLAVIA : BASIC SCHOOL AND GIMNAZIJA TEACHERS BY SUBJECT AND QUALIFICATION, 1966

	Total	% with qualifications from : University or equiv.	Viša Škola	Teachers' School	Other Sec.	No Sec.
I. Basic Schools						
General subjects	44,238	0.29	1.4	95.7	2.2	0.49
II Basic Schools						
Mother tongue	7,915	19.59	44.77	32.28	3.09	0.13
Foreign languages	5,454	27.01	40.51	26.42	5.91	0.01
History & Geography	7,541	20.36	52.81	23.89	2.75	0.01
Mathematics	6,166	8.41	47.57	40.89	3.11	0.02
Science	11,498	4.75	56.90	33.41	3.93	0.01
Art	3,260	10.15	25.83	59.81	3.53	0.49
Total specialist teachers	41,871	13.8	47.4	33.8	4.5	0.17
III. Gimnazija						
Mother tongue	756	95.84	3.17	0.39	0.52	-
Foreign languages	1,676	69.14	17.05	6.44	6.20	0.17
History & Geography	979	91.78	5.51	1.78	0.91	-
Mathematics	855	80.31	15.66	0.70	3.16	
Science	1,201	75.01	21.58	0.41	2.91	-
Art	182	62.08	20.87	14.88	2.19	
Total specialist teachers	5,649	79.57	14.54	2.94	2.88	0.05

Source : Statistički Bilten, 348 (Belgrade 1966) Adapted

TABLE V. 10

YUGOSLAVIA : PUPILS AND TEACHERS IN BASIC AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS (AS NUMBERS AND PROPORTIONS), AND TEACHER-PUPIL RATIO

		1938-39	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
I.	PUPILS AND STUDENTS				
1.	Total (000)	1,091	3,403	3,503	3,577
2.	Basic School (000)	1,471	2,803	2,960	2,980
3.	Basic School (%)	87.0	85.1	84.5	83.3
4.	Secondary, all types (000)	211	402	449	504
5.	Gimnazija (000)	125	95	116	142
6.	Gimnazija (% of total)	7.4	2.8	3.3	4.0
7.	Gimnazija (% of secondary)	59.2	23.6	26.0	28.2
II.	TEACHERS				
1.	Total	40,721	123,041	127,003	130,939
2.	Basic School (No.)	34,609	93,611	93,428	96,970
3.	Basic School (%)	71.2	75.9	73.6	74.2
4.	Secondary (all types)	13,374	25,464	25,245	25,863
5.	Gimnazija (No.)	5,607	5,512	6,249	7,404
6.	Gimnazija (% of total)	11.5	4.5	4.9	5.7
III.	TEACHER-PUPIL RATIOS				
1.	Basic School	1:42.4	1:32.3	1:31.7	1:30.9
2.	All secondary	1:15.8	1:15.8	1:17.8	1:19.5
3.	Gimnazija	1:22.3	1:17.2	1:18.6	1:19.2

Source : (raw Data) : Statistički Kalendar Jugoslavije 1964

(d) Yugoslavia - General Problems

Once again the qualitative problems have to be seen in the quantitative context. The general teacher shortage has already been noted; and, as in the USSR, it is exacerbated by considerable dilution. In the gimnazija, the situation is not desperate - nearly 80 per cent have university level qualifications, and most of the underqualified remainder have graduated from higher pedagogic schools or pedagogic academies.[92] But in the basic schools (which, as we have seen, account for over 80 per cent of the teaching force), the situation is much worse. Very few of the elementary teachers are underqualified, over 95 per cent having been to teachers' schools. But at the lower secondary stage, where all teachers are supposed to have higher pedagogic school qualifications at least, only 47.4 per cent have them. Even allowing for 13.8 per cent who are over-qualified for work at this level, over a third of the total number are underqualified, most of them holding teachers' school qualifications. (For details, see Table V 9.)[93] Further, even this level is maintained only by putting up with uncomfortably high teacher-pupil ration. There has, certainly, been a steady improvement since the war, and at the gimnazija level at least it is down to acceptable proportions - 1 : 19.2 in 1964. But in the basic schools it was still 1 : 30.9 in 1964; this was a big advance on the pre-war position (1 : 42.4), but is obviously a great deal worse than in the gimnazija. Clearly, the basic schools have a long way to go before they can hope to dispense with underqualified teaching staff. (See Table V 10.)[94]

3. Rumania

In Rumania, teacher supply has never been an acute problem. The teacher-pupil ratio stood at 1 : 35.4 before the war, hardly higher than that produced by years of effort in Yugoslavia and elsewhere. In 1948-49 (the first year of the new system) it was 1 : 28.4, but came down steadily to just over 1 : 20 in the mid-1950s. Since then, it has risen slightly (up to 1 : 25.5 in 1962 and down again to 23.6 in 1966), which is reasonably steady in a period of considerable expansion - there were nearly twice as many pupils in general schools in 1966 as in 1948.[95] Nor has this involved much dilution, though there is some in the countryside; powers of direction exist, and appear to be rather more effectively used than in the USSR. The training system has, on the whole, been able to keep pace with the demands of the growing system, even when the proportion of specialists required has leapt from 21 to 58 per cent of the total teaching force.[96]

There are, nevertheless, qualitative problems. These are most obvious, perhaps, at the level of higher pedagogic education - the universities and the three-year pedagogic institutes, which are between them responsible for the training of the growing number of upper and lower secondary teachers respectively.

The three-year pedagogic institutes suffer, basically, from invidious comparisons with the full university courses. As one cautiously-worded article in the leading party journal puts it:

> The pedagogic institutes have obtained results which may be regarded as generally satisfactory, the great majority of their graduates becoming well-trained in their special subjects...(But)...there is still room for improvement in the content and work of the pedagogic institutes. In the first place, we need to solve the problem of overloading which, especially in the two-subject courses...puts serious difficulties in the way of full mastery of the special subjects and the formation of the capacity for deepening independent and creative application of this knowledge in the teaching process.[97]

Or, as the head of one of the pedagogic institutes put it, rather more succinctly, "Three years are not enough for the training of subject specialists; we are not really up to university level yet."[98] Indeed, this is officially recognised:

> The increase of the length of study to four years is required, thus permitting a better spacing out of the pedagogic subjects, better conditions for the intensification of individual study, and for the general formation of the character of the new teacher. As is known, the Ministry of Education is examining (this possibility), the lengthening of external courses having been already realised.[99]

But the length of the course, and the overloading that it involves,

is not the whole problem. The basic relevance of the content of the teaching of specialist subjects is also open to question:

> The other problem that needs to be settled is that of a more effective orientation of the content of education in the pedagogic institutes, in the sense of bringing it closer to the needs of the general school... The specific aim of the pedagogic institutes is being lost sight of - to train teachers for general education. (E. g.)...In the faculties of physics-chemistry the curricula are much too overloaded with strictly specialised scientific disciplines of university level, corresponding to nothing in the curricula of the general school...The faculties of plastic arts give too much attention to the disciplines which deal with the training of creators in this field, and too little directly connected with the training of teachers... Similar observations can also be made for other faculties, which presents the problem of revising the curricula and syllabuses of the pedagogic institutes altogether so that, without reducing the theoretical-scientific level of the students' training in their special fields, there can be set up a clear and more direct connection between this training and the needs of education in the general school.[100]

This contains echoes of the arguments over the institution in this country of the B.Ed. degree in the Colleges of Education. Coupled with the complaints about the length of the course, however, it is more serious; the pedagogic institutes do not have sufficient time to train specialist teachers; and what they do have, it is alleged, they squander by trying to copy the full university courses, rather than bending their attention to the specific training of secondary teachers.

But the university courses themselves are open to the familiar charge of relative neglect of their teacher training function:

> Teaching in the university is at the moment specially concerned with deepending the special disciplines which, obviously, is not wrong, and must be continued along these lines - on condition that there is some admixture and judicious selection of scientific material suited to the requirements of the general educational schools, and in such a way that it does not lead to overloading... The pedagogic side...is not given enough weight to meet the requirements of modern education in its present state of development.[101]

Once again, the universities are caught up in an ambiguity of function, attempting at the same time to train specialists in various fields - chemists or physicists, say - and teachers of

these subjects in secondary schools. As previously noted, the Rumanian authorities are aware of the dilemma, and are seeking to resolve it by the differentiation of subject-matter beyond the first stage of the university course.

As for teacher training at the lower level - formerly the pedagogic schools and now the pedagogic lycees - there has been very little criticism, and what has been voiced has been concerned mainly with detail - the need to improve curricula, better textbooks, more effective links between the training institutes and the schools, etc. - rather than with the basic nature of schools of this type. Rumania is the only country in Eastern Europe where the existence of teacher training at upper secondary level has not been fundamentally challenged, and where the most recent legislation[102] envisages a role for schools of this type on a more than temporary basis.

4. Poland

It will be seen that although there are differences in the severity of quantitative problems, many of the structural and qualitative problems do occur widely throughout the Eastern European area. For a final example, let us consider Poland. It has already been observed that, quantitatively at least, teacher supply is not a major problem; Poland is spared the acute shortages that plague Yugoslavia and parts of the USSR. It is worth noting, though, that the supply of teachers is bound to be a factor of some importance; at the basic school level, there are still many one- or two- teacher schools which, in spite of enormous

TABLE V. 11

POLAND : BASIC SCHOOLS AND PUPILS (%) BY NUMBER OF TEACHERS PER SCHOOL, 1937 - 1964

	1937-38	1945-46	1949-50	1952-53	1955-56	1961-62	1962-63	1963-64
Schools	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
with 1 teacher	50	40	38	28	20	20	21	21
with 2 teachers	28	24	26	23	19	12	11	11
with 3 teachers	13	16	17	16	7	8	7	7
with 4 or more teachers	14	20	24	33	54	60	61	61
Pupils	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
in schools with 1 teacher	25	20	11	6	5	5	5	5
with 2 teachers	22	19	19	12	9	5	5	4
with 3 teachers	17	15	19	14	5	5	4	4
with 4 teachers or more	36	46	51	68	81	85	86	87

Source : Polska w Liczbach, 1964, 97

improvements since the end of the war, must put some strain on the supply. (See Table V 11.)[103] In addition to this, the teacher-pupil ratio is still high. For example, it has been 1:32 or 1:33 in basic schools since 1953, and this figure is a considerable improvement on the immediate post-war years; in 1946 it was as high as 1:49, and was not brought down to 1:40 until 1950. These figures, in turn, show up well as compared with the pre-war years, when the ratio stood at the well-nigh incredible figure of 1:64.[104] Cutting the ratio in half has, naturally, involved considerable effort and expenditure; therefore, even if it is now possible to staff the schools fairly adequately, the present ratio (and the spread of teachers in the remaining small rural schools) leaves very little margin for the further improvement of teacher training - obviously, even the lengthening of a course by one year means losing the services of an entire years' output of graduates, which can be a serious matter if the teacher supply is in no position to carry the shortage. It is small wonder that the abolition of the pedagogical lyceums seemed impractical for a long time, and that the lengthening of the teachers' studium courses has had to wait for better days.

The qualitative difficulties are familiar enough by now. In the pedagogic lyceums, for example, "From the intellectual point of view there emerge many difficulties resulting from the students being very young".[105] These, however, are disappearing. But as for the teachers' studiums, which are replacing the lyceums:

> ...there are serious difficulties in recruiting a sufficient number of candidates. These students are attracted by university and college offerings, and do not feel very enthusiastic about a teaching career, especially if it is to be in a primary school. That is why one may share a well-grounded anxiety that the most gifted youth will shun this field of studies.[106]

Not only do the studiums tend to get the less able school-leavers, but the two-year course is too brief to allow much coverage of even one special subject. In practice, the demands are even greater:

> In the circumstances prevailing in the schools a teacher has to deal with at least two subjects in the higher forms (i.e., the middle secondary stage - N.G.), though these subjects are usually related...(Further), there are...schools in the less populated areas with only two or three teachers on the staff. If these children are to be fully educated it is essential that all teachers should be equipped to teach all subjects.[107]

In practice, this usually means that students are trained in one or two subjects (preferably cognate), general primary methods, and "some elementary skill in music, art and handwork, and a stronger grasp of at least one of them".[108] This, it should be remembered, is for teaching children of 11-15, an obviously over-ambitious programme for a two-year post-secondary course in a teachers' studium.

As for the higher institutions (the universities and the higher pedagogic schools), precisely the same problems arise in Poland as elsewhere - not enough attention to teacher training at the universities, and a lower level of attainment in the higher pedagogic schools in the special subjects. In spite of the fact that the two types of institution are more nearly equivalent in Poland than in any other East European country with the exception of East Germany, the differences are nevertheless keen enough:

> The university curriculum has some qualities which the colleges (i. e., the higher pedagogic schools - N. G.) have not. At the university young people study definite fields of science without taking a final decision as to what profession to enter. In these circumstances, their studies are more "open" and contacts among students of various interests and vocational ambitions constitute an intellectually instructive factor. In the pedagogic colleges there are only those who are to be teachers; they are a selected and closed group consisting of the future members of a single profession. Their studies cannot be so "liberal" as at the university and are more narrowly professional. It is also very likely that in the selection to universities and pedagogical colleges the more gifted young people apply for university admission, being attracted by a more all-round education and brighter future prospects. Likewise, the faculty

lecturing at the universities is, broadly speaking, of a higher standard than at the pedagogical colleges.[109]

5. The U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe - the Major Problems

Over the Soviet and East European area as a whole, then, the most crucial problems appear to be the following:

(a) In the universities, the teacher training element tends to be relegated to a very minor role; it occupies a minuscule part of the curriculum, is often inadequately taught, or at least is regarded as of minor importance. Complaints, ranging from the mild to the denunciatory, are widespread that the universities do not take their responsibilities in teacher training seriously, and that they prepare their students inadequately, both in the practical and the psychological sense, for work in the schools.

(b) In the other higher colleges for the training of teachers, the standard in the specialist subjects is frequently unsatisfactory. The qualifications of the staff, the level of research work, and the quality of the students, all compare unfavourably with the universities, and the length of the course is held to be too short in the majority of cases. These observations hold good (to different degrees, naturally) whether the gap between the two types of institution is obviously wide (as between the Yugoslav higher pedagogic schools or the Polish teachers' studiums and the universities), or narrower (as in the case of the Polish higher pedagogic schools or the Soviet pedagogic institutes and the universities). There is less unanimity

about the inadequacy of the pedagogic courses at this level, but the complaints are nonetheless common.

(c) Teacher training at the upper secondary level - the pedagogic schools of the USSR, the Yugoslav teachers' schools, the Polish pedagogic lyceums, etc. - is not highly regarded. The level of subject work is too close to that of the general educational school, the atmosphere is rarely conducive to the exercise of adult responsibility by the students, while the immaturity of the students gives rise to intellectual and personal problems, even for the teaching of young children in the primary schools. With the exception of Rumania, all the countries in question have taken the view, either explicitly or implicitly through the formulation of policy, that schools of this type are inherently unsatisfactory. Only under the pressure of practical difficulties in the way of abolishing such schools (as in the USSR) has there been any major attempt to rehabilitate them.

(d) More generally, there is dissatisfaction with the teaching of the pedagogic subjects, and the performance of teaching practice, at virtually all levels. The main criticism here is that the link between theory and practice, and between subject-content and teaching, is weak. This is sometimes attributed to faulty planning of the courses, weaknesses in their structure, failure to implement programmes even when they have been carefully worked out, and sometimes to a combination of all these factors.

(e) Co-operation between the training institutions and the schools is inclined to be patchy. At best, it can be extremely effective; but in every country there are cases of lack of fruitful contact, leading to students being insufficiently familiar with the realities of teaching, lack of interplay between practical teaching and educational research, and considerable frustration at all levels.

(f) Quantitative problems, though varying considerably from place to place, are nowhere absent and frequently serious. Two of the countries in question - the USSR and Yugoslavia - suffer from severe shortages in certain areas and certain subjects. Dilution of the teaching force, and the survival of awkward teacher-pupil ratios, are common if not general; and even where it has been possible to contain these problems within tolerable limits, the absence of margin in the supply of fully qualified teachers is bound to make plans for the improvement of teacher training much more difficult to implement, especially where they involve (as they nearly always do) prolonging the existing courses of study.

6. Measures of improvement

(a) Universities

Suggestions for the remedy of these and other defects are, needless to say, plentiful, and some of them have been acted on. A great deal has been written in the most general terms on the needs to improve the standards of teacher training throughout the system, especially in the USSR, ever since the 1958 laws, but much of this

has been more in the area of exhortation than clear proposals for action. There have, however, been a number of more precise attempts, or at least proposals, which call for some attention.

In the Soviet universities, it can be doubted if calls on the staff to "create a pedagogic atmosphere" can, of themselves, accomplish a great deal. But there have been some measures to reconstruct the courses in such a way as to involve students more directly in the work of teaching, in the hope that this will secure some degree of commitment or at least make them more effective teachers:

> As is well known, the new (1965) curricula of the universities envisage an increase in the share of the load for the pedagogic disciplines, introduce a longer period of teaching practice, and make possible the purposeful training of students for teaching activities, drawing them into the work of the school, beginning in the first year of the course...
>
> The most signal characteristic of this kind of work is that the student's professional and psychological training start with the first days of his course in the university. Suitably oriented from the start, it covers general and special courses, practical and laboratory work.[110]

It is useful to note that in the working out of the details the

universities seem to have been given their heads to a considerable extent. In Rostov university, for example, there has been some re-tooling of the courses in the special subjects with a view to clarifying their connection with school work:

> The lecturers in the general and special courses select and emphasise those problems which have the greatest significance for the future teacher of a given specialty. Biologists' production practice is carried on under the assumption that many of them will become leaders of the pupils' experimental work on school plots.[111]

There have been many examples of re-structuring of courses in this way, but on the whole there is a reluctance in the universities to push the process too far; already, in some subjects, it has been necessary to provide courses for intending teachers and for specialists, which deviate from each other to some extent.[112] The emphasis is rather on repairing the fortunes of the teacher training courses themselves. In some cases, the official course has been jettisoned and replaced by series of discussions and seminars on a more flexible basis.[113] There have also been attempts to improve the official syllabus, so as to take more account of the practical application of educational theory, and to pay greater attention to technical advances - again, of a practical kind.[114] But many universities have been working out their own special modifications. Moscow, for example, is becoming particularly strong on programmed

learning; Voronezh pays considerable attention to audio-visual aids and the expansion of the use of educational technology generally - as indeed do many others, this having been a relatively neglected area until recently. Voronezh has also done much work on learning difficulties in the classroom, the Bashkir university on methodological problems in the humanities; these two, together with Saratov, Rostov, Petrozavod and others, have been running series of special seminars on pedagogy and methodology in an attempt - reported to enjoy some degree of success - to point the relevance of one discipline to another with reference to a number of specific practical topics.[115] There has also been rather more participation than formerly by university staff and students in work with schools and teachers, whether in school-based research projects, organisation of improvement courses and conferences for school teachers, conducting olympiads and competitions for school pupils, taking part in methods sections at teachers' conferences, and so forth.[116] That the schools and teachers benefit from this is taken for granted; but it is gratifying to note some recognition that this can be a two-way process:

> First-hand contact with teachers make it possible for scholars to have a deeper knowledge of the needs and problems of the school, and all the better to train students for their future pedagogic activities.[117]

There is reason to believe that this kind of work has at least led to some improvement in the quality of teacher training. Whether

it can have much effect on the more stubborn problem of motivation is open to doubt; it is surely easier to turn students into effective instructors in their subjects, and even into competent "upbringers", than to imbue them with "a love of the pedagogic profession." There have been some claims that there have been improvements in this respect too, but they are rather few, cautious, and in any case hard to verify. In Yugoslavia, as we have seen already, attempts to improve the teacher training side of university work have met with disappointing response, both from the students and the university teachers, while in Poland there are still many who doubt if the university is really a suitable place to train teachers at all.[118]

(b) Pedagogic Institutes and Colleges

(b) Pedagogic Institutes and Colleges, other types of higher institution, as we have seen, is their inability to provide training in the specialist subjects to a level adequate for work in the secondary classes, especially when they are compared with the universities. This has proved not only a large but diffuse problem, difficult to pinpoint since it is manifested in so many ways. In the Soviet pedagogic institutes, for instance, there has been ample evidence that the teaching staff are less well qualified than in the universities and other vuzy, and that the more highly qualified tend to drift away at a disturbing rate. One of the reasons suggested has been the lack of adequate facilities for teaching and research, and here at least there have been moves to improve the situation. The resolution of the RSFSR Bureau of the CC CPSU envisaged

"strengthening the instructional-material base of pedagogic institutions"[119] - in other words, calling for more money for equipment, laboratories, libraries, classrooms, etc., both with a view to increasing "the effectiveness of the instructional process" and tempting restless lecturers with the prospects of better facilities for teaching, scholarship and research. As one editorial comment has it:

> The increase of scientific personnel can only take place when an atmosphere of scientific enquiry is established in the departments (of pedagogic institutes), and when all lecturers are involved in the working out of scientific problems.[120]

In short, attempts are being made, with the aid of cash as well as exhortation, to raise the level of work in the pedagogic institutions to something more like that of the universities, thus helping to break what one author calls the "vicious circle"[121] whereby poor facilities drive away the ablest teachers, thus lowering the level of scholarship, thus driving away more teachers, and so on. Obviously, this will take some time to bear fruit; so far, there are some signs of advance in some institutes, but most have still a long way to go before they can be considered in the same league as Moscow or Leningrad in the eyes of potential students or staff. Meanwhile, suggestions are afoot that something has to be done to raise the qualifications of staff already there, by tightening up the requirements for higher degrees in the pedvuzy and by encouraging more

of the teachers to pursue further courses and research.[122]

Improving the supply and standard of pedagogic institute staff will not, of course, automatically raise the standard of teaching of specialist subjects to the desired level, and here there have been some moves to make the courses more realistic. Not that the intention is to copy the corresponding university courses; it is increasingly felt that it is the failure of this kind of attempt that is largely responsible for the uncomfortable and uncomplimentary comparisons. The syllabuses, therefore, have been revised with a view to making their content more relevant to the teacher's needs in the school.[123] Some updating has been brought about in the courses of pedagogy, psychology and methods as well, along much the same lines as the developments already noted in the universities - more attention to technological and audio-visual aids, practical seminars, feeding the results of research and the experience of the schools into the students' courses, and familiarising them with some of the thornier problems at a stage of their careers when their tutors can be of some help. Orsk pedagogic institute, for example, runs courses of seminars, based on case-studies, of children with learning difficulties and personality problems.[124] There has also been an encouraging increase in joint activity between the institutes and the schools, although this has been most noticeable in the larger pedvuzy such as Moscow, Leningrad, Kuibyshev, Kirov, Novosibirsk, Buryat and others, to the benefit of both parties.[125] Even one of the sternest critics says that "The organisation of field and pedagogic practice has improved, and the quality of the study of the social

disciplines has been strengthened."[126]

Many of the improvements that have been carried out involve little more than the implementation of the existing slyyabuses, but some alterations have had to be made. There is a limit to this, however; the constant alteration of the curricula and syllabuses is, as we have seen, a matter for constant complaint, and "stabilised curricula" are now regarded as essential for morale and efficiency.[127] One suggestion has been that there should be one further change, and then no more major alterations for 15-20 years.[128] This seems highly unlikely to come about, though thinking at official as well as vuz level seems to be running in favour of more permanent curricula, with a greater degree of flexibility built into them to allow for necessary short-term reforms.[129]

One point that will have to be settled before there can be any question of "stabilised curricula" in the length of the course. If the pedagogic institutes are to reach standards anywhere near those of the universities, something will have to be done about the over-loading of the curriculum which resulted from the previous institution of the five-year course. A considerable body of opinion is "deeply convinced that the teacher cannot be trained in four years" and that "a change-over to a five-year course is now necessary, but must not long be delayed if we hope for a radical improvement in teacher-training."[130] In practice, as we have seen, the trend has been towards five-year courses. But past experience has shown that lengthening the course does not of itself raise standards; the

existing five-year programmes, requiring in most cases specialisation in two subjects, cannot measure up to the university in any one discipline; and even if the single-subject courses are prolonged (and there is no sign of this so far) there is always the danger of filling in the time with extra material, thus losing the advantages. Parkinson' Law has been in operation in the Soviet higher institutions often enough before.[131] Any establishment of "stabilised curricula", therefore, would involve a much more radical examination of the range of material expected in course-work, with less emphasis than at present on lectures and more on independent work. There have been many suggestions as to how this might be done, but so far no definite action. According to Ministry officials, the whole question of the length and content of the podyum courses is still being examined;[132] meanwhile, the discussion continues.

This question has been more seriously examined in some Eastern European countries than others. In Hungary, the colleges training lower secondary school teachers have established a four-year course, one year less than the universities but clearly differentiated from them in function. In Czechoslovakia, the three-year colleges have become four-year pedagogic faculties of the universities, while similar developments have taken place in Rumania. In Yugoslavia, however, the gap is as great as ever. The pedagogic academies are replacing the teachers' schools and the higher pedagogic schools, but have not yet managed to improve on the two-year post-secondary courses. Any approximation to university

standards is clearly out of the question, much more so than in Hungary, Czechoslovakia, Rumania or the USSR. In Poland, the problem exists at two levels; the teachers' studiums still offer only two-year courses, the increase to three years being more of a long-term than an immediate prospect, so that similar observations about their standard can be made as in the case of the Yugoslav pedagogic academies. The Polish higher pedagogic schools are another matter. They already have as long a course as the universities but, as Suchodolski has remarked,[133] the structure of their courses, together with such factors as prestige, size, etc., preclude any real equivalence with the universities - a situation, in fact, not unlike that in the longer podvuz courses in the USSR.

(c) The relationship between universities and other higher institutions

But even when the colleges can approximate more closely to the standards of the universities - feasible at least in principle and, given time and the improvement of resources, possible even in the case of the present two- or three-year colleges - there remains the extremely knotty problem of the relationship between the colleges and the universities and, for that matter, the whole higher education system. In a sense, this problem becomes more acute, not less, as the standards rise. When the teacher training colleges are unambiguously functional, vocational, and geared to teaching at a lower level of the system, the lines of demarcation are at least clear; but as standards rise to the point where there is overlap in function and quality, the complications set in. In Britain, what has

been termed the "binary system" has brought in its train a multiplicity of rivalries and demarcation disputes, often acrimonious, from governmental level to school staffrooms. Much of this is confused by essentially extraneous considerations such as prestige, status, personalities, group and individual ambitions, but there is nevertheless a genuine dilemma. There is no space here for a discussion of the issues, which merit a study of their own, but the major ones might be summarised thus: where the universities are responsible for part of the area of educational studies and/or teacher training, the colleges outside are in danger of being devalued as a consequence, as are the teachers whom they produce; and it is at least arguable that the universities suffer from losing contact with the problems of the other parts of the system. If, on the other hand, the colleges are responsible for the entire area, both the general education of the students, and the interdisciplinary contacts at research level, are in danger of impoverishment. Quite apart from questions of prestige, fruitful exchanges are always in danger of blockage under a divided system. Considerations of this kind are, clearly, operative in the USSR and Eastern Europe as well as in the West, and the solution of integrating the colleges in the university structure is widely canvassed and, in some cases, acted upon.

(c) i. U.S.S.R.

In the USSR, there is wide agreement that some kind of redefinition of frontiers is bound to come. As one commentator says:

> The time has come to repudiate the dual system, and on the basis of a careful analysis of the positive and negative points of the two types (of institution) create a single system. There can be different ways of achieving this. The idea has been repeatedly suggested in the press of transforming the pedagogic institutes into pedagogic faculties of the universities. We are deeply convinced that this would make teacher training worse. The universities have their own special problems and, being preoccupied with them, can not at the same time produce highly qualified teachers.[134]

This last point is rather sweeping; the universities, after all, do send the majority of their graduates into teaching and, numerous though the complaints are, the pedagogic institutes are open to the same and worse. This particular author, however, seems to have more or less written off the universities as future growth points for teacher training. In this, too, the controversy continues. Total integration is suggested from time to time, especially in the teachers' newspaper Uchitel'skaya gazeta. At the other extreme, the idea has been put about that the integration of teacher training should take the form of total separation from the universities - "The universities can train scientific workers, lecturers in vuzy, tekhnikumy and specialised schools, and the pedagogic institutes can train teachers for the ordinary schools".[135] This suggestion finds more favour in university and research circles - it was

mooted by Academician A. Aleksandrov in 1964 - and has the attraction of simplicity, but is open to criticism in that it would cut off the teacher training system from the universities; unless the level of staff qualification and research provision in the pedvuzy rose beyond reasonable expectation, there would be a strong possibility of worsening rather than mitigating some of the defects already mentioned both in the pedagogic institutes and the universities themselves. As far as one can judge from the statements of ministry officials, the authorities are undecided on this matter; for the moment, then, the question of structure remains open, attempts to improve the work of the existing institutions are continued, with the universities and the pedagogic institutes retaining their somewhat roles.

(c) ii Poland.

Similar uncertainty exists in Poland about the relationship between the higher pedagogic schools and the universities. The higher pedagogic schools began with three-year courses in 1946; they were extended to four years in 1954, and to five in 1958. But there was some reaction against them in 1956, even before the final prolongation of the course. The schools in Warsaw and Łódź were swallowed up by the universities, and it seemed likely that the others would soon follow. The subsequent controversy resolved itself largely into a struggle between the university and high pedagogic school lobbies, centring principally on disputes about comparative standards, curriculum content, the desirable degree of vocational bias, and so forth. The addition of the fifth year in the remaining

higher pedagogic schools was thus a partial reversal of the 1956 policy, and by 1960 Ministry of Education officials were telling the Teacher Training Conference in Warsaw that the decision to close these schools had been a mistake.[136] The controversy has never really died out. In 1963, Suchodolski could still report that "there have been many voices clamouring" for the abolition of the higher pedagogic schools:

> Those who hold extreme opinions urged, on the one side, that the training of teachers should be entirely concentrated in the universities and the pedagogical colleges abolished, and on the other that pedagogical colleges should be the only centres of teacher training and the universities should be left to produce all specialists except teachers.[137]

The situation was not greatly different in 1966, though opinion seemed to be veering further in favour of the higher pedagogic schools.[138] As in the USSR, the extremes of integration and separation are still being urged, and a decision on the problem (and at least it is recognised to be a problem) is as far away as ever.

(c) iii Other countries

In the USSR and Poland, then, the solution of integrating the pedagogic colleges with the university structure has been rejected, for the moment at least. In Yugoslavia, the question does not so far arise, in view of the long way the pedagogic academies have to

go before such a course becomes even feasible. Separation remains in Hungary, Bulgaria and in East Germany, though for different reasons: the Hungarian pedagogic institutes (and, a fortiori, the teachers' training colleges) are recognised as fulfilling a clear-cut function of training teachers for different levels. Much the same considerations apply in Bulgaria; and in East Germany, the pädagogische Hochschulen and the Pädagogische Institute (at and below university level respectively) will have to wait for clearer delineation of their functions in the general reshuffle of the whole higher educational system. In Czechoslovakia and Rumania, however, the decision has gone the other way. The pedagogic institutes have been reorganised as integral parts of the universities; in the case of the new Czechoslovak pedagogical faculties, this has already involved lengthening the course from three to four years, while similar developments have been in process in Rumania since 1966.

But this, not surprisingly, brings new problems in its train. As the experience of other countries demonstrates, the subsuming of colleges of education under the university umbrella does not necessarily raise them to equivalent standard or status, as many of the American university Schools of Education make abundantly (and sometimes depressingly) clear; and even if the improvement of standards is achieved, built-in prejudices - on both sides - takes more to break them down than administrative rearrangements. (Teachers' College in Columbia University, for example, cannot

seriously be regarded as an inferior institution, yet staff and students alike still ruefully describe the street that separates it from the main university block as "the widest street in the States".) The observation that civil wars can be more savage than external conflicts is as true of universities as of nations. But it is not only a question of prejudice - any new department or centre in a university normally has to put up with that - but to a large extent there is a need to clarify the role of such an institute or faculty within the university system.

(c) iv Rumania

In Rumania, we have already seen that the linking of the pedagogic institutes with the universities is seen as part of a general reorganisation of the university structure, whereby the course is to be divided into a basic cycle of four years, qualifying graduates for teaching in secondary schools, and a specialist cycle of $1\frac{1}{2}$ years for more advanced work. With the increase of the pedagogic institute course to four years, the first courses in both sectors now run parallel.

> They will make up together a single system of training teachers, for a single category of teachers in the general educational school, regardless of whether they are trained in the universities or the pedagogic institutes. The graduates of the institutes will have the same right as graduates of the first university cycle as far as teaching appointments are concerned,

and also for access to the scientific cycle of university studies.[139]

It is not intended, however, merely to absorb the pedagogic institutes into the universities; they are to retain their identity as self-contained units, with a more directly vocational bias in their curricula. This is partly for geographical reasons. The institutes have been set up according to what is termed the "territorial principle" - that is, they are deliberately distributed about the country so that each major region has one of its own, in an attempt to discourage the drift to the major cities where the universities are. There were 14 institutes in 1966, but only five universities; consequently, many operate away from university centres, and have to retain a separate existence in fact as well as in theory. In the interests of consistency, all the pedagogic institutes therefore retain a separate administrative structure within the university system; but it is recognised that there is bound to be a difference between those actually in university cities and those in the more remote areas:

> Granted that the idea of including the pedagogic institutes within the universities is a valuable one, its realisation in practice raises problems which need to be given due attention, with an understanding of these two types of institution and the limitations in the way of harmonising (them) into one unitary system... Sight must not be lost of the fact that the pedagogic institutes in the

> university centres are the strongest in the country, have a well-developed material base, a greater number of faculties, and a broad teaching staff.[140]

As can be seen from Table III 8, there is a marked difference between the two types of institute, which might be intensified if the universities merely swallowed up the institutes in their own areas. While it is true that "so far...the universities have given important support to the pedagogic institutes with teaching and supervisory personnel", this has gone mainly to the local ones, such as Bucharest, Cluj, Jassy and Timişoara. This is not enough, however:

> In the new era, this co-operation needs to be stronger and better organised...Such (help) is needed most of all for pedagogic institutes in centres where there are no universities. These need the most substantial support right from the beginning.[141]

But there are other reasons for retaining the identity of the pedagogic institutes. The idea of simply turning them into pedagogic departments of the universities is rejected as an "inadequate formula", and it is noted that previous attempts to do this were unsatisfactory. The purpose of the present integration is not to turn them into copies of the other faculties, but to raise their prestige and level of staffing and research work, without making them less specifically concerned with teacher training. Whereas in some countries the aim is apparently to build up the institutes (or equivalent) as alternatives

to the universities, in the Rumanian situation it is felt that they have to be improved through closer association with them, partly in order that the higher prestige of the universities may rub off on the institutes, partly on practical grounds, allowing "the utilisation in common of the material basis of the educational process, highly qualified staff, the selection and promotion of teachers, and the organisation and development of scientific research activities". Total integration in the future, however, is not ruled out:

> As the system is adopted of organising some faculties of the university into two cycles..., the direction of development in university centres will be towards greater identity, ending with eventual amalgamation. (But) this should happen by a natural process... The pedagogic institutes can then, in the future, take over the job of improving teaching personnel.[142]

In Rumania, then, as in Czechoslovakia, the decision has been taken in principle to integrate the entire higher teacher training system under the university structure; the debate concern the means, the details, and the pace. It seems likely that the pedagogic institutes can be effectively amalgamated, after a lengthy period of parallel existence, into the body of the universities proper; whether it will be possible to obtain as close a relationship with the smaller institutes away from university centres remains to be seen, and should be worth watching, since the differences of standard between the larger

metropolitan colleges and the smaller, more remote ones has been seen to be a considerable problem for the entire system in the USSR - and, indeed, in the UK as well.

(d) Pedagogic Schools

Finally, there is the question of the upper secondary teachers' training schools. It seems fair to say that nowhere have these been regarded as intrinsically viable institutions, and have been accepted either because of the sheer pressure of numbers, or because they provide a way of "catching them young". In Bulgaria, they have already vanished; in Czechoslovakia, after a period in which they were concerned with the training of kindergarten teachers only, they have been replaced entirely by post-secondary courses, as has happened also in Hungary. In Poland, in spite of the fact that they seemed reasonably long-term fixtures in 1963, they are now being replaced by the two-year teachers' studium. In Yugoslavia, they are on the way out, surviving now only in Serbia and only while the pressure of demand holds up their replacement by pedagogic academies, as has happened in the rest of the country. Rumania, for the time being, has decided to retain them, in the new form of pedagogic lycées. It is in the USSR that the relationship between educational principle and the pressure of practical considerations has been most clearly shown.

(d) i The U.S.S.R.

It has already been noted in Chapter III that the decision was taken in 1958 to phase out the pedagogic schools in the USSR, and it

TABLE V 12

U.S.S.R.: ENTRANTS AND GRADUATES, TEACHER TRAINING COURSES, 1950-1965

		1950	1959	1960	1964	1965
I.	Higher Ed. Institutions					
1.	Entrants (total, 000)	349,1	445,9	523,3	820,5	853,7
2.	No. in education (000)	182,6	140,0	186,1	266,2	271,3
3.	% in education	54 1	31.4	31.2	32 8	31.8
4	Graduates (total, 000)	179,9	290,6	342,9	356,0	403,9
5.	No. in education	94,1	113,7	139,1	128,8	143,4
6.	% in education	52.2	39.6	40.5	36.4	35.2
II	Sec. Specialised Schools					
1.	Entrants (total, 000)	426,3	534,1	789,3	1098,7	1099,7
2.	No. in education (000)	105,6	53,5	72,1	95,5	101,3
3.	% in education	24.8	10.0	9.4	8.2	9.3
4.	Graduates (total, 000)	319,7	551,2	488,5	569,3	621,5
5.	No. in education (000)	78,6	55,4	48,9	59,5	59,7
6.	% in education	24.4	11.5	8.9	10.5	9.6
III.	Comparisons					
1.	Education entrants (000)	280,4	301,5	257,2	364,7	373,1
2	% higher institutions	68.3	71.0	72.0	73.3	72.7
3.	% sec. spec. schools	30.7	28.0	28.0	26.2	27.3
4.	Education graduates (000)	170,7	177,1	183,9	187,3	202,1
5.	% higher institutions	55.1	64.3	74.9	68.3	70.5
6.	% sec. spec. schools	44.9	35.8	26.9	31.2	29.5

Source : (raw figures) : Nar. Khoz. 1965

is a reasonable assumption that the very nature of these schools was regarded as unsatisfactory as a basis for the further improvement of teacher training. It has been noted, also, that the complaints about this type of institution were the most serious and fundamental. In an general attempt to raise the standards of the educational system, therefore, the decision to replace these schools was entirely logical.

For a time, enrolment figures reflected this policy. As can be seen from Table V 12,[143] the number of entrants to peduchilishcha had fallen off by 1958 - in absolute numbers, and even more as a proportion of all entrants to secondary specialised courses; they also fell off as a proportion of entrants to teacher training courses. By 1960, however, there had been a change; the number entering pedagogic schools, having fallen from 105,800 in 1950 to 58,500 in 1958, had risen again to 72,100 in 1960, to 95,500 in 1964, and to 101,800 in 1965. This was still less than in 1950, and, with the continuous rise in the secondary specialised sector generally, made up a much smaller proportion. Still, it was obviously a reversal of policy; the numbers of new entrants to the pedagogic schools were much too high to be regarded as a mere fluctuation, and by the early 1960s it was clear that the peduchilishcha were on the way back.

This trend has continued to the present. Not only have numbers grown, but schools which had been closed down in 1958 and after have been re-opening. In 1964-65 there were 323 of them in the entire country, but by 1966-67 there were 367. It was widely expected in 1958 that as the primary school faculties of the

TABLE V. 18

U.S.S.R: PEDAGOGIC SCHOOLS AND COURSES BY REPUBLICS 1964 - 1967

	1964 - 1965				1965 - 1966				1966 - 1967			
		Courses				Courses				Courses		
	Schools	Primary	Kindgtn	Other	Schools	Primary	Kindgtn	Other	Schools	Primary	Kindgtn	Other
RSFSR (- ASSRs)	176	139	60	32	192	152	77	42	204	149	86	52
ASSRs	40	34	14	9	44	38	18	15	44	34	23	16
Total RSFSR	216	173	88	41	236	190	96	56	248	183	109	68
Ukraine	39	32	26	24	39	32	25	26	39	32	24	23
Byelorussias	6	6	2	3	6	6	2	3	6	6	3	3
Uzbekistan	10	7	8	1	12	9	8	1	17	11	11	5
Kazakhstan	14	14	12	-	14	14	3	-	14	14	3	-
Georgina	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-
Azerbaidchan	8	7	1	-	8	7	1	-	9	8	1	-
Lithuania	3	3	2	-	3	3	2	-	3	3	3	-
Moldavia	5	5	1	-	5	5	1	-	5	4	2	2
Latvia	1	-	1	1	1	-	1	1	1	-	1	1
Kirgizia	1	1	1	-	2	2	1	-	3	3	2	-
Tadzhikistan	7	6	1	-	8	7	1	-	8	7	1	-
Armenia	2	2	2	-	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	2
Turkmenia	4	4	4	-	4	4	4	-	4	4	4	-
Estonia	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	-	1	1
Total other SSRs	105	89	62	29	110	94	54	30	117	97	69	36
External Schools	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-	2	-
Total USSR	323	262	147	70	348	284	151	86	367	280	171	104

Source : Spravochnik 1964, 1965, 1966, Ref. 144

pedagogic institutes increased, such pedagogic schools as remained would concern themselves with training kindergarten teachers and teachers of music, drawing, physical education, work training, etc. There was certainly a move in this direction, especially in the major cities and some of the more advanced republics. Moscow and Leningrad have only two pedagogic schools each which train primary school teachers, while Latvia, Estonia and Georgia have none. But this is not the general picture, either in the RSFSR or in the USSR as a whole. It is true that the growth in the number of kindergarten and other courses in the last three years has been greater than the increase in the number of primary courses. In 1964-65, the 323 schools offered 469 courses between them - 55.9% for primary school teachers, 29.2% for kindergarten teachers, and 14.9 per cent for others. In the following year, there were 348 schools with 520 courses - 54.6% primary, 29.0 kindergarten, 16.4% others; and in 1966-67, 367 schools gave 557 courses - 50.3% primary, 30.7% kindergarten, 19.0% others. (For details, see Table V 13.)[144] The trend has obviously been in the right direction, but it has been rather slow, and the fact remains that more pedagogic school trained primary teachers have been required.

The trends in recruitment to the teaching profession are similarly instructive. The proportion of new teachers with higher educational qualifications has generally improved, from 55.1 per cent in 1950 to 64.2 per cent in 1958, to 70.5 per cent in 1965. But as can be seen from Table V 12, this has not been steadily maintained;

TABLE V. 14

U.S S.R : PERCENTAGE OF REPEATERS IN GENERAL SCHOOLS OF THE RSFSR BY CLASS
1 50 - 51 - 1963 - 64

		1950 - 51	1953-54	1955-56	1958-59	1963-64
Class	I	3.0	6.3	5.0	3.8	2.0
	II	6.0	7.6	4.0	5.8	2.7
	III	9.0	12.1	6.0	6.9	3.9
	IV	9.0	10.7	6.0	6.9	3.9
	V	10.0	21.5	10.0	12.7	7.2
	VI	9.0	16.9	11.0	11.0	7.1
	VII	6.0	11.7	7.0	10.6	5.5
	VIII	7.0	10.3	8.0	12.3	5.4
	IX	4.0	10.6	5 0	8.4	4.8
	X	0.0	1.6	0.0	1.6	2.1
	XI	n.a.	n.a	n.a.	n.a.	0.3

Sources : 1950-51, 1955-56 TsSU RSFSR, Kul'turnoe stroitelstvo RSFSR; Statisticheskiii Sbornik. Moscow, Gosstatizdat, 1958

1958-59, 1963-64. M. Kashin, Narodnoe obrazovanie, 8, 1965

Comp: Ann S. Goodman and Murray Feshbach, Estimates and Projections of Educational attainment in the USSR, 1950-1995, p.6
(U.S. Dept. of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, Washington D.C., 1967).

the position was better in 1960 than it has been since. Obviously, the improvement is irregular and subject to fluctuation, and the need is still felt for a substantial output of primary school teachers from the pedagogic schools.

If we now revert to the figures for dilution (Table V 2), the extent of the problem becomes clearer. The total number of serving teachers with higher educational qualifications has risen from 28.9 per cent in 1959 to 41.5 per cent in 1965-66, and this, combined with the figures for graduates from the different levels of the training system, suggests that some improvement can be maintained. But the rate of improvement is still slow, too slow to dispense with the pedagogic schools yet. Over three-quarters of the teachers in the primary classes have pedagogic school qualifications, which suggests that there is a long way to go before they can be replaced by higher qualified people. But in the meantime, there is a more urgent task; 16.7 per cent of lower secondary teachers have secondary specialised school qualifications, and since this is seriously below the level required for work in these classes, improvement of this situation has a prior claim. This is not just a matter of complying with regulations. The figures for pupils repeating the year's work (Table V 14) show that the problem area is mainly in the middle secondary range, precisely the area where dilution is at its worst. The correlation between a teacher's qualifications and competence is not, of course, exact, and anyone who has ever taught knows that other factors than a teacher's

competence contribute to pupils' failure, notably the dwindling of motivation among many pupils as time goes on, but the correspondence is significant enough to suggest that the effect of dilution are being felt in the classroom. Since the teachers trained in the secondary pedagogic schools seem better able to cope at the primary level, there is therefore a strong case for concentrating on the elimination of dilution in the secondary classes.

In the primary classes, the teacher-pupil ratio stands at 1 : 30.1, a good deal higher than for the system as a whole (1 : 19.3 is sometimes given, though 1 : 21.4 would be more realistic, making due allowance for part-time courses, etc.) The ratio for classes V-XI, counting class teachers only, is 1 : 14.2).[145] The primary ratio, though not catastrophic, is still too high, and more teachers are obviously required. Yet the most pressing argument for the retention of the pedagogic schools probably has more to do with the secondary than the primary classes. Ever since the introduction of eight-year schooling in 1958, the numbers have been rising in the secondary classes - not only at the compulsory stage, but beyond it, until the proportion going onto class IX reached over 60 per cent of the age group in 1966.[146] This development, culminating in the decision to aim for universal ten-year schooling by 1970, means an ever-increasing demand for more teachers at the upper secondary level; and this, together with the need to bring the teaching force of the middle secondary classes up to standard, is already straining the pedagogic institutes to the limit. Hard put to it as they are to cope with current demands, they will certainly not

have the resources to spare for the enormous task of replacing the great majority of the primary teaching force as well. Since the primary classes can expect little help from the higher institutions, therefore, they will have to rely on the pedagogic schools.

Two other factors are relevant here. One is the obvious point that numbers have been increasing at primary school level.[147] The other is that the pre-school institutions have been sharing in the general expansion of the educational system; there were 6,207,300 children in nurseries and kindergartens in 1965, nearly five times as many as in 1946, and over 2½ times the 1958 figure. This has meant an increase in the number of vospitateli to over 4½ times as many as in 1946, 2½ times as many as in 1958. With 453,000 teachers in 1965, the pre-school institutions require nearly as many as the primary classes (672,000).[148] Not all of these are fully trained, but most are, and the pedagogic schools are the only places which train them. In the near future, the proportion of children in the kindergartens is likely to increase; and since a lower teacher-pupil ratio is desirable for kindergartens (it was 1 : 13.7 in 1965),[149] the demand for vospitateli is bound to increase at an even greater rate than the number of children. Thus, yet another demand is placed on the pedagogic schools.

Faced with this, and with greater demand on the higher institutions for secondary teachers, the educational system has not been able to carry out the original policy of replacing the pedagogic schools with faculties for the training of primary teachers in the

pedagogic institutes.

The re-evaluations of the pedagogic schools that have already been noted are not, therefore, based on any real change of the nature of these institutions, but on the realisation that they cannot be dispensed with. To say, then, that "we are finished with underestimating the pedagogic schools" is making a virtue of necessity.

Just how much weight was given to the various factors mentioned above is a matter for speculation. The resolution of the RSFSR Bureau of the CPSU pre-dated the decision to implement universal secondary education, but the possibility was in the air, the rising numbers were clear enough, and so were problems such as the extent of dilution in the secondary classes and the growth of demand for kindergarten teachers. By 1965, the trend for the next decade or so was discernible, and it was early in 1966 that more began to be made of the need to improve the pedagogic schools:

> In the formation of the personality, the first teacher has an especially responsible role. Kindergarten and primary school are where the foundations of a person's character, aspirations and interests are laid down, determining for many years his relationship with the collective. If a young person studies successfully in the secondary school, if when he goes out into the world he turns out to be a worthy member of our society...a great deal of the credit for this goes to

his first teacher.[150]

So far, so good; all that this says is that the influence of the primary teacher is a matter of great importance, precisely the kind of argument previously used to justify the abolition of the pedagogic schools. But the same editorial goes on:

> That is why it is impossible to overrate the importance of the training with which the graduates of the pedagogic schools come to their charges... The resolution of the RSFSR Bureau of the CC CPSU...has envisaged a definite role for the peduchilishcha... In the last half-year not a little has been done for the improvement of the material-technical base of many uchilishcha. The curricula are being stabilised. Serious work is going on for the improvement of the existing teaching syllabuses. Highly qualified lecturers are being appointed to the peduchilishcha. All this provides an opportunity for serious improvement of pedagogic education in our country.[151]

A later article on the same theme (Uchitel'skaya gazeta 2 February 1967) begins thus:

> The successes of secondary pedagogic education in our country are well known. We have available a considerable army of qualified primary school teachers, giving their

> pupils sound knowledge from year to year, skilfully bringing up the younger generation in the spirit of devotion to communist ideals and the Soviet motherland and people.[152]

This has to be decoded. To say that "the successes of secondary pedagogic education...are well known" is less than accurate. What these and similar articles are doing is giving notice that these schools are here to stay after all, that they have necessary role to play in present plans, and that they had therefore better be improved. The examples singled out for commendation, and the general and particular criticisms, are intended to indicate that there is a great deal of room for improvement (which everyone knew anyway), and that improvement is possible. It is generally admitted that in the attempts to raise the quality of the teacher training system the pedagogic schools tended in the past to be written off, naturally enough in the light of their imminent abolition. Now that they are here to stay - for ten years or more according to Ministry officials - there is much leeway to make up, hence the urgent claims that "without this, it is inconceivable that the great tasks...can be accomplished in time"[153], and the declaration that this is not only a matter for the teachers and directors but for the political authorities too:

> The pedagogic school needs the unremitting care and attention of party, Komsomol and social as well as Soviet organisations. Every year, the country must

> have more and more teachers and pre-school workers, with an all-round training, wholeheartedly devoted to their worthy profession.[154]

It would seem, then, that major structural changes, particularly the disappearance of these schools, are unlikely for some time. The Soviet teacher training system will probably remain in substantially its present form, while efforts to improve its workings are likely to be concentrated on internal and qualitative measures.

(ii) The U.S.S.R. and Eastern Europe - Behind the Contrasts

While the Soviet Union has been back-tracking on pedagogic schools, the trend everywhere else in Eastern Europe has been away from upper secondary teacher training, with the exception of Rumania. Even in Yugoslavia, where the biggest of the constituent republics still retains teachers' schools, this is recognised only as a temporary measure.[156] Assuming that pedagogic schools are an unsatisfactory type of training institution, which even the USSR did until recently, this puts the other countries ahead of the USSR in this area of educational advance at least.

The reason for this must be largely a matter for speculation, and are certainly complex. Among the factors operating here, however, the following might be suggested:

(1) Economic factors. These obviously play some part here. East Germany and Czechoslovakia, for example, are richer than the USSR, and they, notably, managed to dispense with secondary training of primary school teachers long ago, and for kindergarten teachers more recently. But there is no exact correlation. Hungary and Bulgaria could be fitted into this pattern, and the same could be said for certain parts of the USSR, where the major cities have gone further than the country areas in replacing the peduchilishcha; and, as can be seen from Table V 13, what is feasible in Latvia or Georgia is rather more difficult in Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan or the northern and far eastern stretches of the RSFSR. But this point must not be pushed too far; Yugoslavia and Poland are not among the richer countries of the area, yet are succeeding in abolishing the pedagogic schools. Rumania, on the other hand, which is, has decided to retain them for the time being.

(2) Population increases have naturally put more pressure on school places, and here the distinction is clearer. Czechoslovakia and Hungary have fairly static populations, East Germany's population fell steadily until the building of the Berlin wall, and Yugoslavia, Rumania and Bulgaria, though increasing, are doing so at a very modest rate. In the USSR, on the other hand, the war-time drop in population was more than compensated for by a substantial post-war bulge, thus producing a large, if temporary, growth in population. Of the other countries, only Poland has anything approaching a population problem (yet another bone of contention between party and church), and there the decision to

abolish the pedagogic lyceums is recent - after the greatest pressure has been taken off the primary schools.

(3) The growth of the secondary school population has everywhere been considerable. The point here is not that more pupils stay on for the upper secondary stage in the USSR than anywhere else. East Germany, Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria have been ahead of the Soviet Union in this respect throughout most of the post-war period.[156] But there has been a difference in pace. Whereas the growth at this level has been either less ambitious (as in Yugoslavia, Hungary, Rumania) or steadier in the other countries, the vacillations of policy on secondary school enrolment (see Chapter I) in the USSR have concentrated the growth within a shorter period, thus intensifying the demand on teacher supply. This, together with a spell of actual underenrolment in the pedagogic institutes in the 1950s (due in part to misinterpretation of future needs) brought the teacher supply situation in the USSR to crisis point by the 1960s, more so than in other countries. This, of course, is a different question from the supply of primary school teachers; but, as we have seen, this can have an indirect effect in putting extra pressure on the higher institutions that would have to take over the functions of the pedagogic schools if they were abolished. Sudden increases in demand (as in Poland immediately after the war)[157] can be catered for by emergency measures; but when they come later in the process - and, apparently, to an unforeseen extent - they can greatly add to the problems of training. The USSR has therefore been in a uniquely difficult position since the mid-1950s as compared with the immediate post-war period of reconstruction.

(4) The replacement of upper secondary teacher training schools

(4) The replacement of upper secondary teacher training schools has not been the same kind of operation everywhere. As far as the length of time in training is concerned, the proposed change in the USSR would involve two extra years (10 years in general school plus 4 in a pedagogic institute instead of 8 years of basic school plus 4 in a pedagogic school). Czechoslovakia achieved a greater increase over a longer period for primary teachers, and similar one more recently for kindergarten teachers. In Bulgaria the same amount of extra time was required (from 8 + 4 to 11 + 3), while in Hungary the increase was two years for primary teachers, one for kindergarten. But in Poland and Yugoslavia the position was somewhat different. The Polish basic school now gives an eight-year course, the general educational lyceum a four-year course; the pedagogic lyceum course is of five years' duration, and that of the teachers' studium, which is replacing it, two years. The change-over thus means abandoning an 8 + 5 system for one of 8 + 4 + 2, a total gain of one year. In Yugoslavia, the teachers' school has a five-year course (sometimes four), the gimnazija has a five-year course, and the pedagogic academy, as yet, two. The old system, therefore, was 8 + 5 (as is still the case in Serbia), as against the new one of 8 + 4 + 2, a gain of one year. (The four-year teachers' schools are mostly in Serbia, and their abolition will involve a two-year increase; but this has not yet been done, perhaps partly for that reason.) In length of training, therefore, the USSR has still been outpaced by the richer countries and/or those with more static populations; but when it is compared with the poorer ones, such as Yugoslavia and Poland, the difference is not great. In fact,

the once-mooted reforms in the USSR would have involved a greater increase in time - and thus, presumably, a greater diversion of resources - than similar reforms in those countries where economic factors cannot be used to explain the lag.

(5) This, of course, does not alter the fact that the overall length of the education and training of teachers is still shorter in the USSR than anywhere else at most levels. For kindergarten teachers, the position can be summarised thus:

Table V 15

Years in:	Basic School	Upper Sec.	Teacher Trg.	Total	Increase
Czechoslovakia	9	3	2	14	1
Hungary	8	4	2	14	2
Bulgaria	8	3	3	14	1
Poland	8	4	2	14	1
Yugoslavia	8	4	2	14	1
USSR	8	-	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$11\frac{1}{2}$	-

For primary school teachers (using the most usual means of qualifications) the present position works out thus:

Table V 16

Years in:	Basic School	Upper Sec.	Teacher Trg.	Total	Increase
Czechoslovakia	9	3	4	16	1
Hungary	8	4	3	16	2
Bulgaria	8	3	3	14	1
Poland	8	4	2	14	1
Yugoslavia	8	4	2	14	1
USSR	8	-	4	12	-

If the proposed replacement of the pedagogic school in the Soviet Union had been pursued, the pattern for the USSR would have been:

8	2	4	14	2

For the sake of comparison, the next table summarises the position for teachers at the lower secondary level:

Table V 17

Years in:	Basic School	Upper Sec.	Tchr. Trg.	Total
Czechoslovakia	9	3	4	16
Hungary	8	4	4	16
Bulgaria	8	3	5	16
Poland	8	4	2	14
Yugoslavia	8	4	2	14
USSR	8	2	4/5	14/15

Finally, the pattern for teachers at upper secondary level:

Table V 18

Years in:	Basic School	Upper Sec.	Tchr. Trg.	Total
Czechoslovakia	9	3	5	17
Hungary	8	4	5	17
Bulgaria	8	3	5	16
Poland	8	4	5	17
Yugoslavia	8	4	4/5	16/17
USSR	8	2	4/5	14/15

There is, obviously a good deal of variation here, but in general the USSR can be seen to be trailing behind all the other countries at all levels, with the exception of Poland and Yugoslavia at lower secondary level. But on closer examination the discrepancies are not so great at the level of actual training - the USSR compares reasonably

well with the others, notably in the training of lower secondary teachers - but at the level of general schooling, especially at the upper secondary stage, they are quite striking. The differences were summarised in Chapter I, but it is worth recalling here that the Soviet general school has the shortest course of all - 10 years as against 11 or 12 elsewhere. The 1958 reforms seemed likely, with the addition of the 11th year, to be moving towards a pattern more like that of the other countries, but, as we have seen, this policy has been reversed in favour of a shorter course for a greater proportion of the age-group.

The reasons for this are too complex to be gone into here, and are in any case not central to the present discussion. It is relevant, however, to observe that the proportion of pupils proceeding to the upper secondary stage of general schooling is now higher in the Soviet Union than in the other East European countries, whatever the position may have been earlier, and it should be higher still with the coming introduction of obligatory 10-year schooling, which envisages 75 per cent of the age-group in the full-time general upper secondary school and the rest in some kind of course. It seems reasonable to conclude, bearing in mind the economic and demographic arguments, that this spread has been accomplished at some cost to the total length of the course. The overall length of training is thus affected as much by policy decisions on general schooling as by those specifically concerned with the training institutions themselves.

(iii) Rumania

So far, Rumania has been omitted from this comparison, being something of an exception to the general pattern, and one not readily amenable to the explanations suggested for the other systems. It is the only country apart from the USSR to confirm a place for pedagogic schools (albeit in a new form); it is one of the richer countries, has a fairly stable population and a general secondary school base as well developed as many others - better, certainly, than Yugoslavia. Indeed, the recent decision to set up 5-year pedagogic lycées looks at first sight like a retreat, since the former pedagogic schools offered six-year courses, the longest in the area for schools of this type; but since this measure follows close on the lengthening of the basic school from seven to eight years, the total length of education and training of primary teachers remains the same, namely 13 years - longer than in the USSR but shorter than all the others at the same stage. In view of what has been happening elsewhere, this is rather odd. In the absence of clear indications of the reason, we can only suggest that the following considerations may have had something to do with it:

(1) The setting up of the pedagogic lycées seems to have been part of a package deal. The law of 1966 dealt with specialist upper secondary schools of various types, a kind of school hitherto lacking in Rumania except for pedagogic schools. The pedagogic lycées did not figure prominently in the discussions at the time, and may have been fitted in for the sake of convenience - and also, possibly, to provide a model for the newer types of school.

(2) One of the reasons advanced[159] for the creation of the specialist lycées was that they would provide a means of orienting students at about the age of 15 - later, possibly, 16 - into more vocationally inclined courses, thus making it possible to continue with the expansion of upper secondary education without increasing the numbers bent on universty entrance and nothing else, a problem common to most countries with expanding secondary systems, but one which is felt particularly acutely in Rumania. Indeed, it is hoped that the introduction of these new schools will reduce the problem. Whether this will be successful remains to be seen - the experience of other countries is not particularly encouraging - but it is clear that the kind of consideration that Suchodolski mentioned in the Polish context in 1963[160] was still alive in Rumania in 1966.

(3) The reform of teacher training in Rumania has been, as we have seen, concentrated on higher pedagogic education, with all the problems of demarcation and integration that this involves. Most of the discussion has been concerned with the integration of lower and upper secondary teachers training, but at the same time the door has been left open to the inclusion of primary training at this level too. The pedagogic institutes do provide courses for primary as well as lower secondary teachers, and these are likely to be raised to 4-year university courses in the general reorganisation. Statements are scanty on the matter, but there are enough to suggest that the primary training system will have to wait until it is possible to assess the outcome of the present reorganisation. Although, therefore, the

pedagogic schools have been retained, it is not at all unlikely that the training of primary school teachers will be taken into the university structure in the wake of the training of lower secondary teachers. From this point of view, it is a matter of timing; rather than raise the pedagogic schools to college level, and then examine their position yet again, the Rumanian authorities seem to prefer to leave them in with the other specialist lycées, concentrate on the amalgamation of the existing colleges with the universities, and then, if that has worked satisfactorily, expand the small number of existing primary courses in the institutes to take over the role of the pedagogic schools at last. How long this would take is even more a matter of speculation, but even in a system noted for swift policy decisions, it seems reasonable to assume that a few more years will be required.

Admittedly, the length of course is rather a crude measure, and tells us little of the qualitative implications of shifting the training of primary teachers from upper secondary to college level. Unfortunately, this is virtually impossible to quantify, in terms either of advantage or difficulty. There is, however, a wide consensus that it does make a difference to the quality of the teachers, and that it is more difficult to carry through; the data for staff qualifications in the Yugoslav institutions (see Table V 8) are one illustration of this. To express differences of this kind in numerical terms would obviously be useful, but no viable way of doing so has yet been devised; suffice it to note that this factor simply adds some force to all the quantitative arguments brought forward so far.

7. Conclusion

How far, then, is it possible to reckon the degree of success with which the USSR and the countries of Eastern Europe have tackled the tasks in teacher training in the post-war period? Quantitatively, the picture is certainly mixed. Most countries have managed to maintain a supply of teachers sufficient to keep the system going, and even to cope with expansion, but often at the cost of putting up with high pupil-teacher ratios at some levels, and, in the cases of the USSR and Yugoslavia in particular with considerable dilution combined with local shortages. Qualitatively, the major problems of adequate and relevant course content are general and stubborn; in so far as they are amenable to curriculum and syllabus reform, there has been some improvement, though complaints are still numerous and the syllabuses themselves still show a marked bias towards subject content rather than towards method or educational theory, a bias which becomes more obvious the further one goes up the system. There is little evidence that there has been more than marginal re-examination of this, though the numerous minor improvements should not be underestimated. In so far as structural reorganisation is called for, there has been a general trend - with exceptions already examined - to prolong existing courses of training and to raise courses from on level to another, from pedagogical school to college, and from college to university of similar institution. But the pattern is uneven; there are numerous examples of hesitation, such as the uncertainty over the length of courses in the Soviet pedagogic institutes; and "shortfall"

is common, i.e., the implementation of one stage of a reform but not the other, as when the raising of the pedagogical schools in Yugoslavia and Poland has gone forward, but not the lengthening of the college courses which replace them. In short, though the general tendency is towards raising the level of teacher training, and lowering barriers between the different types of institution, postponement of the necessary measures has been frequent, the rates of success vary greatly, and the training systems are still, in most cases divided according to the level of school in which the students will teach. While unification of the training of teachers is felt to be a desirable end, it is still far off in practice.

On the positive side, two points are worth singling out. First, the training systems, though still bearing strong family resemblances to those that existed pre-war, are less fragmented. The gaps between categories, are there, but rarely as clear-cut or as wide as they were. Secondly, the initial training of teachers is not the end of their professional study. While it is true that the various in-service and further courses have their drawbacks, and still fail to reach many practising teachers, this sector of the training system, is nevertheless well-developed in the USSR and the other Eastern European countries. This not only mitigates some of the undoubted failings of the training institutions, but does much towards the development of a training process which does not end with the award of the college diploma, but continues throughout professional life. Speaking of the educational system in general, a Yugoslav educationist said in 1958,

"We must abandon the absurd principle that school is the place where a person learns once and for always what he needs in life".[161] In the training of teachers, considerable steps have been taken towards abandoning this principle; and if this trend can continue until active teaching and training for it are co-terminous - even synonomous - this will be a more significant development than any changes, however desirable, in the structure or content of the system of initial teacher training.

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TEACHER TRAINING IN THE U.S.S.R. AND EASTERN EUROPE IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD

(1945 - 1966)

Nigel Grant - Thesis Summary

Chapter I outlines the development of the Soviet and East European educational systems since the end of World War II. In the case of the East European countries, the pre-war systems are also considered; it is noted that while they shared high standards at secondary and higher level, most pupils had only terminal elementary schooling. Technical and other alternatives to the academic secondary schools were underdeveloped, illiteracy was high in many areas, and war devastation exacerbated the problems in most countries.

The most important tasks of the post-war governments were (1) the conversion of selective to mass systems, and (2) changes in orientation - social, political and technical. In both tasks, extensive use was made of the Soviet system as a model. Some examples of these post-war changes are considered, as are the main developments in the U.S.S.R. up to the present time.

Chapter II considers the implications of the post-war changes for teacher training: the growth in the number of pupils, the proportionately greater numbers in secondary education, the greater stress on science and technology, and the political changes, created demands for more teachers, especially more secondary teachers, more specialists in certain fields, a politically committed teaching force, and a greater degree of adaptability to change.

In Chapter III it is seen that the training systems are all to some degree based on the traditional continental pattern of clearly differentiated institutions training teachers for different levels of the system - originally, universities for academic secondary school teachers, secondary pedagogic schools for primary teachers, and training colleges for teachers of the intermediate stages. The variations in this pattern are examined in detail, and some common trends are noted - towards simplification, towards raising the level of training, and towards the abolition of pedagogic school (with the exception of Rumania and the U.S.S.R.)

Chapter IV deals with the content of training courses in the different types of institution. From the analysis of several curricula, it emerges that while courses for primary teachers pay considerable attention to professional training, more attention is given to specialist subject content in training colleges, and more still in the universities, with courses in professional subjects occupying a much less significant place.

These courses are nevertheless planned with some care. Examination of specimen syllabuses in pedagogy suggests that they are designed with the same end in view - to relate practical teaching

to educational and psychological theory, and to relate these to the social and political values and outlook of communist society, thus giving the student a complete politico-educational framework within which to assess practical problems of teaching. The syllabus for teaching practice is constructed along similar lines.

As can be seen from the numerous complaints cited in Chapter V, however, there are many problems and failures. The universities often neglect teacher training, while the colleges are below standard in the specialist disciplines. The pedagogic schools fail so often on both counts that they are widely held to be inherently unsatisfactory. There are also severe quantitative problems, such as teacher shortages, dilution, overcrowed classes, etc., which make the implementation of reforms more difficult.

Attempts at improvement have had mixed results, and one continuing problem is the relationship between the colleges and universities, which few countries have yet managed to resolve. Most have abolished the pedagogic schools and replaced them with higher institutions, but Rumania and the U.S.S.R. have not. Possible reasons for this are examined, and it is suggested that in the U.S.S.R. radical improvement in this field is unlikely in the immediate future.

In conclusion, it seems that the success of the U.S.S.R. and the East European countries in training teachers to meet post-war demands has been mixed. Quantitatively, they have managed to produce enough to expand the systems but not enough to carry through reforms in the training structure as far as intended. Qualitatively, the problems are still acute, and reforms have often proved difficult to complete. It is noted, however, that there has been some advance in the face of difficulties, and that the prominent place accorded to further and in-service training does much to offset the inadequacies of the initial training process.

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Appendix 1

Pedagogic Schools Programme - Pedagogy

I. General Fundamentals of Pedagogy

1. Upbringing of the growing generation. The role of upbringing in the life of society.

Upbringing - a social process. The role of upbringing in the life of society, the class and historical character of upbringing. (Upbringing in primitive society. Upbringing in the conditions of slave society. Upbringing in the feudal period. Upbringing in the Renaissance period. Upbringing in capitalist society. Upbringing in socialist society).

Definition of the subject of pedagogy. Concepts: upbringing, education, instruction; their essence, unity and variety.

Soviet pedagogy - the science of the communist upbringing of the rising generation. Marxist-Leninist philosophy - the methodological basis of Soviet pedagogy. The scientific basis of Soviet pedagogy. The role of the leading experience of the school in the development of Soviet pedagogy.

The system of the pedagogic sciences. The connection between pedagogy and the other sciences. The tasks of Soviet pedagogy in the period of construction of communist society.

The development of Soviet pedagogy and its relation to the historical accumulation of experience of upbringing and education. J.A. Komensky, J.-J. Rousseau, J.H. Pestalozzi, A. Diesterweg, R. Owen - the most eminent representatives of pedagogic thought in

the west.

The development of pedagogic thought in Russia: K. D. Ushinskii and his role in the creation of Russian pedagogic theory. The pedagogic ideas of the revolutionary-democrats. The formation and development of the pedagogic ideas of scientific socialism - K. Marx, F. Engels, V. I. Lenin.

Development of Marxist pedagogy in our country (N. K. Krupskaya, M. I. Kalinin, A. S. Makarenko).

Modern bourgeois theories of pedagogy, and a critique of them.

2. Growth and upbringing

Concepts: growth and upbringing. The role of heredity, environment and upbringing in the formation of personality. Views of utopian socialists and Russian revolutionary democrats on the role of heredity, environment and upbringing in the development of personality. Bourgeois reactionary theories of heredity, environment and upbringing. Marxist-Leninist teaching on heredity, environment and upbringing.

3. Aims and tasks of communist upbringing

Marxist-Leninist teaching on upbringing for all-round development of personality. Historical survey of the views of the representatives of pedagogic thought on the aims and tasks of upbringing.

The programme of the CPSU on the tasks of upbringing in the period of construction of communist society. Concepts: intellectual education, moral upbringing, physical upbringing, labour upbringing,

aesthetic upbringing and polytechnical upbringing. Interconnection of all sides of communist upbringing.

Significance of the conditions of life established in the USSR for the all-round development of children.

4. The system of public education in the USSR

Concept of the system of public education. Dependence of public education on the social and political order.

The system of public education in Tsarist Russia, in capitalist countries. The struggle of the progressive forces of society for the improvement of the system of public education.

The revolutionary construction of the system of public education in the USSR after the Great October Socialist Revolution. The principles of the structure of the Soviet system of public education. Measures of the Communist Party and Soviet government for the development of the system of public education (regulations of the Party and Government of the USSR on the school.)

The 22nd Congress of the CPSU and the Programme of the Party on the tasks and role of the Soviet school in the communist transformation of society.

"Law on the strengthening of the links of the school with life and on the further development of the system of public education in the USSR".

The system of pre-school upbringing (crèche - kindergarten).

Universal obligatory eight-year education. The importance of the first stage of school work - the elementary classes.

The boarding school and prolonged day school - new types of upbringing establishments, and their significance.

The system of public education in socialist countries.

The system of public education in the chief capitalist countries - USA, England, France.

Practical tasks

Acquaintance with the system of public education in the region.

Seminar tasks

Decrees of the CC CPSU and the Soviet Government on the new system of public education.

II. Didactics

1. Fundamentals of didactics

The concept of didactics. Didactic theories and their development. ('The Great Didactic' of J. A. Komensky, the didactic views of J.-J. Rousseau, J. H. Pestalozzi, A. Diesterweg. The didactics of K. D. Ushinskii and their significance.)

Soviet didactics - the highest stage in the development of didactics. Scientific and methodological foundations of Soviet didactics.

Didactics and subject methods. The tasks of Soviet didactics in the light of the "Law on strengthening the links of the school with life" passed by the 22nd Congress of the CPSU, and the Party programme.

Instruction as a process of equipping pupils with knowledge, understanding and skills, a process of development of learning aptitudes and creative powers.

The process of learning activity in pupils during instruction. Analysis of pupils' learning activities in the light of Marxist-Leninist theory of knowledge and teaching on higher nervous activity.

The leading role of the teacher, development of activity and independent work of pupils in teaching.

2. The Construction of ideas and the formation of concepts in children.

Concreteness of pupils' thought. Guidance of children for sensible perception. Verification of ideas held by children. Im-

portance of correct ideas for the creation of a scientific world view. Exposure of mistakes about educational concepts.

3. Principles of the instructional-upbringing process.

Concepts: principles and rules of the instructional-upbringing process. The upbringing character of teaching. The role of teaching in the formation of the pupils' communist world view and the habits of communist conduct.

Scientific character.

The link between theory and practice in the determination of the practical tasks of communist construction.

The use of visual aids.

Accessibility and feasibility of knowledge, concreteness of norms and requirements.

System and sequence.

Durability of the mastery of knowledge, abilities, skills and norms of conduct.

Activity and independent work under the guiding role of the teacher.

The individual approach in teaching and upbringing. Bearing on positive qualities. Strictness, and respect for pupils.

The upbringing of personality in and through the collective.

Seminar work

Speech of V. I. Lenin to the 3rd Congress of the VLKSM.

Practical work

Analysis of observations of pupils in school lessons (from the point of view of the observation of didactic principles.)

4. The content of elementary education

Concept of general, polytechnical and vocational education, and the necessity of combining them in the light of the tasks set out in the programme of the CPSU.

Developmental character of teaching in the elementary classes of the eight-year school.

Brief historical review of the content of elementary school education in Russia.

Content of elementary education in the Soviet school.

Analysis of the curriculum of the Soviet school (compared with the pre-revolutionary curriculum).

Principles of curruculum construction.

Content of the work of each class, and the connections between subjects.

Textbooks in the elementary classes of the school. Principles of their construction, and the requirements of textbooks. J. A. Komenský and K. D. Ushinskii on the role of the textbook in children's initial elementary instruction.

Practical work

Analysis of the curriculum.

Analysis of the syllabus in one of the subjects.

5. Teaching methods in the elementary school

Concept of methods and ways of teaching.

Development of teaching methods in the history of the Soviet school and pedagogy. Decress of the CC of the VKP (B) of 25 August

1932 "On instructional programmes and the régime in the elementary school", and of 12 February 1933, "On textbooks for the elementary and secondary school".

Dependence of methods of teaching on the features of the material to be mastered, on dialectical aims, and on the pupils' developmental characteristics.

Scientific and psychological foundations of teaching methods in the Soviet school. Rational combination of various teaching methods. Improvement of pupils' activity, independence and initiative in the instructional process.

Critical analysis of teaching methods in the schools of pre-revolutionary Russia and the contemporary bourgeois school.

Teaching methods in the elementary classes of the school:

verbal methods - verbal exposition of material by the teacher, discussion, work with the textbook;

visual methods - demonstrations, independent observations, excursions, demonstration of films and visual aids;

practical methods - verbal exercises, written, graphic, laboratory and practical work.

Practical work

Analysis of observations made in the school. Acquaintance with the leading experience of teachers in the region.

6. The lesson as the basic form of the organisation of school work

Brief historical review of the forms of organisation of instructional work. The class-lesson system of J.A. Komenský.

The lesson as the basic form of organisation of instructional work in the Soviet school.

Types and structure of lessons in the elementary classes of the school. Lesson-planning according to instructional topics.

Combination of group and individual forms of instruction in lessons, the collective and individual activities of pupils. The place of pupils' independent work in the lesson. Rational completion of the task of the leading teachers in the country in the aims of improving the effectiveness of the lesson. The teacher's preparation for the lesson.

The teacher's guidance of the work of the class in the lesson:

capable organisation of the pupils' labour activities;

organisation of pupils' collective and individual work;

organisation of pupils' creative initiative and activity;

guidance of pupils' independent work;

homework: its significance, character and purpose, and organisation of work for this. Testing homework in class. Completion and assessment of homework in boarding and prolonged day schools.

Time-table of lessons in the elementary classes of the school. Principles of its composition.

Practical work

Analysis of lesson summaries and plans.

Conducting discussion "How to prepare lessons at home".

Composition of the time-table.

7. Assessment of pupils' progress

Assessment of pupils' progress as an organisational part of the instructional process. Upbringing significance of the assessment of the pupils' knowledge and abilities.

Types of assessment:

observation and control of pupils' work in the period of instruction;

questioning of pupils;

written and graphic work;

independent practical activities.

Training pupils for self-control in everyday activity. Assessment and its upbringing significance. Criteria for assessment. Piece marking and its significance.

The role of examination and assessment of knowledge in preventing pupils from failing, in stimulating activity and thoughtful participation by the pupil in the work of the class.

8. Features of the organisation of instructional tasks in the incomplete elementary school.

Concept of the one-teacher and two-teacher school.

Division of classes between teachers in the two-teacher school and features of time-table construction. Types of independent work and their rational application in work with two classes. Ways of assessing pupils' independent work.

Teachers preparation for the lesson in the conditions of the small school.

Teacher's activities for the organisation of the pupils' attention and discipline in work conditions involving several classes in one room.

Utilisation of the leading experience of teachers working in small schools.

Practical work

Analysis of the lesson plan.

Construction of the time-talbe.

III. Fundamentals of the theory of upbringing

1. The system and programme of upbringing

The revolutionary-democrats on upbringing. The founders of Marxism-Leninism on the significance of upbringing in the development of human personality.

K. K. Krupskaya, A. S. Makarenko, M. I. Kalinin on the upbringing of the rising generation in socialist society.

The programme of upbringing work in the school and its significance.

Basic content of upbringing work in the school:

the formation of the communist world view;

atheist upbringing;

moral upbringing;

aesthetic upbringing;

physical upbringing;

2. Methods and means of upbringing

Concepts: methods and means of upb-ringing.

Methods of upbringing in the school up to the Revolution.

Classification of methods and means of upbringing in the Soviet school. The upbringing character of instruction as a means of formation of a communist world view.

Conviction - ethical discussion, discussion of artistic works, reading, story-telling, film-shows, individual conversation, political information.

Training - régime, exercises, eradication of harmful habits, organisation of collective work, pupils' social activities and games.

Compulsion and coercion - request, need, order, reproof, prohibition.

Encouragement and punishment, their role in the upbringing of children. The upbringing role of punishment in the Soviet system of upbringing. A. S. Makarenko on encouragement and punishment. The role of social opinion of the children's collective in the application of encouragement and punishment.

Example, and its significance in upbringing.

Collective labour in the process of upbringing.

The method of criticism and self-criticism.

The method of emulation.

Election and responsibility to the collective.

Seminar work

A. S. Makarenko, Lecture on Upbringing.

3. The formation of the basis of the communist world view

Concept of world view. The communist world view on the laws of nature and society.

The programme of the CPSU and the decisions of the June1963 Plenum of the CC CPSU on the formation of the scientific world view, on the irreconcilability of communist and bourgeois ideology, on the struggle against survivals of the past in the consciousness of the people.

The struggle against the manifestations of bourgeois views, morals, and customs, against the remnants of the psychology of private

ownership, and against superstitions and prejudices.

Mastery by pupils of the elementary classes (according to their powers of understanding) of the scientific explanation of natural phenomena and various social phenomena.

Seminar work

The programme of the CPSU on upbringing.

4. Atheist upbringing

Marxism-Leninism on religion. The origin of religion and its fundamental tendencies. Incompatability of science and religion. The programme of the CPSU on overcoming religious survivals.

The Decree of the Council of People's Commissars of 21 January 1918 "On the separation of the church from the state and the school from the church". Resolution of the CC CPSU "On errors in the conduct of scientific-atheist propaganda among the population" of 10 January 1954.

The tasks of anti-religious upbringing.

Methods and means of anti-religious upbringing in the elementary classes of the school:

the formation of the elements of a scientific world view in lessons:

atheist upbringing in extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work: reading and discussion of books, film shows, excursions, regional studies;

work with parents;

individual talks with children;

help from the social organisations to the school and the teacher in the atheist upbringing of children.

Practical work

Working out atheist discussions.

5. Upbringing in communist morals

Morality as a form of social consciousness.

The pedagogy of the past on the role of moral upbringing in the formation of personality. A. N. Radishchev, V. G. Belinskii, N. G. Chernyshevskii and N. A. Dobrolyubov on moral upbringing.

Communist morality and religious morality.

Marxist-Leninist teaching on morality.

The growing role of moral education of the rising generation in the conditions of the building of communism. The programme of the CPSU, the decisions of the 22nd Congress and the June (1963) Plenum of the CC CPSU on ideological problems in the tasks of moral upbringing. The moral code of the builder of communism - the basis of moral upbringing.

Seminar work

The moral code of the builder of communism.

Upbringing in Soviet Patriotism and proletarian internationalism. Concept of patriotism and internationalism. V. I. Lenin on Soviet patriotism and national pride.

Basic ways and means of upbringing in Soviet patriotism and proletarian internationalism of pupils of the elementary classes in the school:

upbringing in the love of one's family, school, native region and the Motherland;

upbringing in the feeling of indebtedness to the Motherland; vigilance and feelings of abhorrence towards the enemies of the Soviet Motherland;

upbringing in feelings of national pride;

upbringing in feelings of friendship and brotherhood among all the peoples of the USSR, and total opposition to national and racial enmity;

upbringing in total opposition to the enemies of communism, peace, and freedom of peoples of all lands;

upbringing in brotherly solidarity with workers of all countries.

Significance of regional studies, study of the achievements of communist construction, the advantages of the communist order, study of biographies of great worker's leaders, and also the biographies of outstanding social leaders in various walks of life, and acquainting children with current political events and with the struggle of peoples for independence.

Upbringing of children in aspiration for active participation in socially useful work and diligent study.

Practical work

Excursions to places of revolutionary events in the area, and analysis with the pupils.

Survey of material for political information.

Upbringing in communist attitudes towards work and socialist property.

The place of labour upbringing and upbringing in the communist attitude to social property in the general system of communist upbringing.

V. I. Lenin and N. K. Krupskaya on the communist attitude towards labour. Upbringing in the socialist attitude towards social property: care for the safety of school property, protection of natural wealth, various kinds of participation by children in the multiplication and care of the resources of their native region. Irreconcilable attitudes towards plunderers of national property.

Practical work

Analysis of the work of the teacher of one class in bringing up pupils in a communist attitude towards social property.

Upbringing in humanism and collectivism. Concept of humanism. "Man to man - friend, comrade, brother."

Upbringing of pupils of the elementary classes in thoughtful attitudes to their friends, comrades and elders.

Upbringing in honesty and truthfulness, simplicity and modesty, feelings of honour and dignity, friendship and comradeship. Concept of collectivism.

Soviet society and personality in it.

Significance of collectivism for the all-round development of personality.

The experience of A. S. Makarenko in the upbringing of children in and through the collective. N. K. Krupskaya on the upbringing of children in collectivism.

The significance of the perspective and development of the

collective. The active group of the pupils' collective. The class collective and the school collective.

The teacher - organiser and leader of the life and activity of the children's collective.

Upbringing in conscious discipline. Concept of conscious discipline.

Russian revolutionary-democrats on the upbringing of children in conscious discipline. A. S. Makarenko on discipline.

Fundamental outlines of discipline in the Soviet school. Methods of upbringing in conscious discipline. Measures for influencing individual pupils in working conditions. Pedagogic tact and the individual approach in the assessment of conduct and in measures for influencing pupils.

The significance of the regime in upbringing in discipline. The significance of habits in the upbringing of children in discipline.

Rules for pupils of the elementary classes of the school. Ways of instilling the "Rules" in the everyday life of the pupils.

Common needs of pupils and their role in upbringing for discipline.

Practical work

Survey of children's literature for each division of this topic.

6. Labour upbringing

The place of labour upbringing in the system of communist upbringing of children.

The system of labour upbringing.

Labour upbringing in the elementary school (handwork, socially useful work, labour for self-help, modelling, pioneer activities).

The guidance role of the teacher in the organisation of children's work.

7. Physical upbringing

Concepts: physical upbringing and physical development;

Leading pedagogic thinking on the significance of physical upbringing. The founders of Marxism-Leninism on physical upbringing.

Decisions of the Party and Government on problems of physical upbringing. (3rd Congress of the VLKSM, Resolution of the CC VKP (B) "On the development of physical culture" of 13 June 1925, and the resolution of the CC CPSU of 27 December 1948 "On physical culture and sport").

Problems of physical upbringing in the light of the decisions of the 22nd Congress of the CPSU and the Party programme.

Tasks of physical upbringing in the elementary classes of the school. Ways and means of physical upbringing.

Pedagogic requirements for the construction of work for physical upbringing.

Significance of labour activities of young pupils for their physical upbringing.

Practical work

Pedagogic analysis of outdoor games.

Working out a plan for a spartakiad and physical culture festival.

8. Aesthetic upbringing

Concept of aesthetic upbringing. Aesthetic upbringing and its role in the all-round development of personality.

Leading Russian pedagogic thought on the aesthetic upbringing of children.

Marxist-Leninist teaching on aesthetics.

Tasks of aesthetic upbringing:

development of aesthetic feelings, linked with perception of the beautiful in the life of the environment;

development in the pupils of aesthetic judgment and evaluations; development in children of aspiration to bring elements of the beautiful into life and activity;

development of children's creative abilities.

Ways and means of aesthetic upbringing in the elementary classes of the school. The role of nature in aesthetic upbringing. Aesthetic upbringing through the media of literature, selected works of art, singing, music. Aesthetic upbringing and the theatre and cinema. Aesthetic activity and social conduct.

Practical Work

Working out a plan for the organisation ofmatinees, story evenings, song festival, quiz evening. Survey of material for festivals.

9. Extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work of the teacher with children. The significance of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work in the upbringing of the new man

Pedagogic requirements for the organisation of extra- curricular and extra-scholastic work:

Types of extra-curricular work: song festivals, publication of newspapers, political information, work with the newspaper "Pionerskaya Pravda", conduct of class meetings, circles, work in regional studies.

Features of extra-curricular work in the boarding and prolonged day school.

Types of extra-scholastic work: work with children in Pioneer Houses, in sports clubs and schools, in children's theatres and cinemas, and on children's technical stations.

Tasks and content of work with Octobrists. Octobrist rules. Guidance of the work of the Octobrist groups.

Features of Octobrist work in the first class. Octobrist work in the second and third classes.

Preparation of Octobrists for entry tothe Pioneers.

The mass children's communist organisation of Young Pioneers, its origin and development. Tasks of the Pioneer Organisation in the light of the decrees of the CC CPSU and the CC VLKSM.

Construction of the Pioneer Organisation. Pioneer symbols. Content of the work of the Pioneer Organisation.

The principle of life and work of the Pioneer Organisation.

Entry to the Pioneers. Election meetings in the Pioneer Organisation.

Forms and methods of work with the Pioneers. Planning the work of the detachment and brigade. The work of the Pioneer link. The Pioneer aktiv, and work with it.

The Pioneer camp. Preparation for the summer camp. Content and forms of work with younger school children in the summer Pioneer camp.

The role of the teacher in the work of the Pioneer Organisation.

The role of the Komsomol organisation in work with the Pioneers and Octobrists.

Organisations of Young Pioneers in the countries of people's democracy.

Seminar Work

N. K. Krupskaya on work with the Pioneers.

Practical Work

Plan of activities with Octobrists.

Plan of the detachment's work in the school.

Plan of the work of the detachment in the Pioneer camp.

Elaboration of discussions with Pioneers.

10. The school, family and society

Leading pedagogic thought on the relationship of social and family upbringing (V. G. Belinskii, A. I. Herzen, N. G. Chernshevskii, N. A. Dobrolyubov, K. D. Ushinskii, L. N. Tolstoy.)

The school and its leading role in the work of bringing up children. Unity of aims and tasks facing the school and family in the USSR in the upbringing of children.

The family. Conditions for successful completion of the tasks of bringing up children in the family.

The tasks of physical, moral, aesthetic and labour upbringing of children in the family.

Significance of parental authority in the upbringing of children (N.A. Dobrolyubov and A.S. Makarenko on the significance of parental authority in upbringing.)

Content and forms of the work of the school with parents: parents' meetings, lectures, individual discussions. The parents' committee and its work. Features of the boarding school's links with parents.

Parents' universities. Committees of assistance for family and school in enterprises.

Protection of the interests and rights of children.

Local departments of guardianship. The work of the inspector for guardianship.

Work of the militia and house managements' children's rooms.

Practical Work

Working out a plan for a parents' meeting.

Working out a questionnaire for visiting pupils at home.

Plan-synopsis for a lecture to parents on the upbringing of children.

IV. School study

1. The Teacher

Position of teachers in Tsarist Russia and in contemporary bourgeois society.

Statements of prominent pedagogues on the teacher and his role in the upbringing of the rising generation.

V.I. Lenin on the teacher.

Assessment of the Communist Party and the government on the role of the teacher in the building of communist society.

The legal position of the teacher in the USSR.

Features of the teaching profession. The creative character of the teacher's work. Qualities of the Soviet teacher. The social work of the teacher. The teacher's work in raising his own ideological-political level and the improvement of his pedagogic mastery.

Characteristics of the teacher's work with young school children.

The teacher as class leader: organiser of the children's collective. The teacher as upbringer in the boarding school. Features of the teacher's work with children in the prolonged day school.

2. The organisation of school work

The significance of correct organisation of the work of the school in the upbringing and instruction of children.

The principles of school management and guidance in the USSR.

The organisation of general instruction.

Admission of pupils and the recruitment of classes.

The school year: the beginning of the school year, the school day, the school week, the school quarter. The internal routine of the school. The time-table of school activities.

Planning the work of the school: running the class newspaper, the pupils' personal affairs, summing up for the quarter and the year, transfer of pupils from class to class, assessment of the teacher for the guidance of school and society.

The work of the pedagogic council.

The work of the methods groups in the school and their role in the dissemination and generalisation of the leading experience of teachers. The link between the school's pedagogic collective and regional and city organisations (methods cabinets, the institute for teacher improvement).

The role of party and trade union organisations in the school in the struggle for the raising of the quality of instructional-upbringing work in the school, for the raising of the ideological-political level of work, and for creative concern for work from the point of view of the whole school collective.

Material-economic provision and school finance, Management of school affairs in the RSFSR.

Practical Work

Analysis of the plan of school work.

Working out a plan for upbringing work in the class.

Acquaintance with the principles of thematic planning in the elementary classes of the school.

Literature for Teachers

1. Programme of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, Sect. V., 1961.

2. K. Marx, Capital, vol. I, ch. xiii, paras. 3a & 9. (Gospolitizdat, Moscow, 1953.)

3. K. Marx, Instructions to Delegates (K. Marx and F. Engels, Works, vol. XIII.)

4. F. Engels, Principles of Communism (Marx & Engels, Works, vol. V.)

5. V.I. Lenin, Tasks of the Unions of Youth. Speech to the 3rd All-Russian Congress of the Russian Communist Union of Youth, 2 October 1920. (Works, vol. 31, pp. 258-275.)

6. V.I. Lenin, On Religion (Handbook, Gospolitizdat, 1954.)

7. V.I. Lenin, On the National Pride of the Great Russians (Works, vol. 2, pp. 84-88.)

8. V.I. Lenin, Pages from a Diary (Works, vol. 23, pp. 422-426)

9. "On strengthening the links of the school with life and further development of the system of public education in the country". Theses of the CPSU and the Council of Ministers of the USSR, Gospolitizdat, 1958.)

10. "Law on strengthening the links of the school with life and further development of the system of public education in the USSR". (Izvestiya, 1958.)

11. N.S. Khrushchov, Speech to the All-Russian Teachers' Congress, 9 July 1960.

12. N.S. Khrushchov, "Rear active and conscious builders of communist society". Speech to the XIII Congress of the VLKSM, 18 April 1958. (Molodaya gvardiya, 1958.)

13. The Communist Party and the Soviet Government on Religion and the Church. (Gospolitizdat, 1959.)

14. Directives and Documents on Problems of the Pioneer Movement (APN RSFSR).

15. Regulations on the Eight-Year School.

16. Curriculum of the elementary classes of the Eight-Year School.

17. Programmes of the Eight-Year School: Elementary classes (Uchpedgiz 1960.)

18. "Specimen programme for upbringing work in the school".

19. "Specimen programme for upbringing work with pupils of classes I-IV" (AFN RSFSR, 1960.)

20. J.A. Komensky, The Great Didactic.

21. J.J. Rousseau, Emile, or Education.

22. N.A. Dobrolyubov, Authority and Upbringing.

23. K.D. Ushinskii, Pedagogic Writings.

24. P.F. Lesgaft, Collected Works.

25. M.I. Kalinin, Communist Education (Uchpedgiz 1951.) As recommended by the lecturer.

26. N.K. Krupskaya, Selected Pedagogic Works (APN RSFSR, 1955). As recommended by the lecturer.

27. A.S. Makarenko, Works. (APN RSFSR, 1950-52). As recommended by the lecturer.

28. Fundamentals of Communist Upbringing (Gospolitizdat, 1960).

29. Didactics, with Primary Interpretation of Theory of Instruction in Classes I-IV of the German Democratic School. (Collective of Scientific Workers of the GDR, trans. from the German, APN RSFSR, 1959).

30. "Homework in the Primary School" (Methods letter, Ushpedgiz, 1957).

31. Norms for assessment of pupils' progress in classes I-IV. Uchpedgiz, 1955.

32. L.A. Vysotina, Moral Upbringing of Young Schoolchildren (APN 1960).

33. V.E. Gmurman, Discipline in the School (APN RSFSR, 1958).

34. E.I. Shimbiraeva, Upbringing of Children in Skills and Habits of Cultured Behaviour (Uchpedgiz, 1955).

35. "Development of logical thinking in the instructional process in the elementary school" (Methods letter, Uchpedgiz, 1959).

36. N.S. Panova, To the Teacher on Work with Octobrists (Uchpedgiz 1960).

37. V.I. Shatskaya, (ed.) Aesthetic Upbringing in the Elementary School (APN RSFSR, 1959).

38. "On the work of the school with parents" (Methods Letter, 1955).

39. I.F. Svadkovskii, Upbringing of Children in Work. (Lecture for parents and vospitateli, APN RSFSR, 1958).

40. M.D. Pushkareva, The Reading of Children in the Family (Uchpedgiz 1955).

41. Also, journals:-

Sovietskaya pedagogika
Nachal'naya shkola
Vozhatyi
Sem'ya i shkola
Narodnoe obrazovanie

Specimen topics for practice of observation of lessons and extra-curricular activities.

1. Implementation of the tasks of communist upbringing in the lesson.

2. Observation of the basic principles of didactics.

3. Observation of teaching methods.

4. Observation of examination and assessment of pupils' knowledge in the lesson.

5. Observation of various types of lesson in the elementary school.

6. Upbringing in communist consciousness in lessons.

7. Implementation of physical and aesthetic upbringing in lessons.

8. Familiarity with the running of various forms of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work.

9. Attendance at crèches, kindergartens, boarding schools and prolonged day schools.

10. Observation of Pioneer gatherings in the detachment and the brigade.

11. Observation of work with Octobrists.

12. Familiarity with the department of public education, the institute for teacher improvement, and with methods work in the area.

Appendix 2

Pedagogic Institute Programme - Pedagogy

Explanatory Note

The growing importance of communist upbringing in the period of large-scale construction of communism gives rise to the need for further improvement of the pedagogic training of young teachers in the pedagogic institutes.

The most recent achievements of pedagogic science and the most advanced research are reflected in the content of the programme. Considerable attention is paid to the psychological basis of the pedagogic process and the formation of the pupils' personality.

The programme reflects the following course structure developed in past years in the pedagogic institues: "General fundamentals of pedagogy", "Theory of instruction", "Guidance of the pupils' instruction and upbringing in the school". This sequence answers better to the tasks of training students for upbringing work in the school.

The programme of seminar and practical work is the concern of the departments of pedagogy.

I. General fundamentals of pedagogy

1. Subjects and tasks of pedagogy

Pedagogy - the science of upbringing. Concept of upbringing as a phenomenon of social life. The role of upbringing in the development of society. V. I. Lenin on upbringing as a "permanent process". The class character of upbringing in class society.

Origin and development of pedagogy. The struggle between materialism and idealism, progressivism and reactionary trends in pedagogy.

Origin and development of Marxist-Leninist pedagogy. Subject and tasks of Soviet pedagogy. Basic pedagogic concepts and their interconnections. Marxist-Leninist philosophy - the methodological basis of Soviet pedagogy. Sources of the development of the science of upbringing. Methods of scientific-pedagogic research. Utilisation of mathematical and cybernetic methods in pedagogical research. The system of the pedagogical sciences. The connection between pedagogy and other sciences. The tasks of Soviet pedagogy in the period of the large-scale construction of communism.

2. Upbringing, development and the formation of personality.

Relationship and interconnection of the concepts "upbringing", "development", "formation of personality". Physical and psychic development of the rising generation, and their unity. Teachings of the founders of Marxism-Leninism on the role of environment, heredity and upbringing in the formation of personality. The teaching of I.P. Pavlov and modern advances in psychological science on the development of the higher nervous activities. Decisive role of upbringing in the development of children in socialist society. Critique of bourgeois theories of the development of personality.

Man as subject and object of upbringing. The role of self-upbringing in the formation of personality.

Growth characteristics of physical and psychic development of

children and upbringing. Stages of growth in the development of children. Study and assessment of growth and individual characteristics of pupils in the process of upbringing and instruction.

3. The building of communism and the upbringing of the new man.

Growing role of upbringing in the period of large-scale construction of communism. The founders of Marxism-Leninism and the programme of the CPSU on the aims and components of communist upbringing. All-round and harmonious development of personality - the general aim of communist upbringing. The basic of communist upbringing of pupils in the Soviet school.

4. The system of public education in the USSR

Concept of the system of public education. Principles of the system of public education in the USSR. Types of educational and upbringing establishments.

The programme of the CPSU on the tasks and prospects for the development of public education in our country. Resolutions of the CC CPSU and the Council of Ministers of the USSR on the development of the system of public education in the USSR. The growing role of the social organisations in the communist upbringing of the rising generation and the improvement of responsibility of parents for the upbringing of children. Combination of social and family upbringing.

II. Theory of upbringing

5. The process of upbringing, and its principles

The essence of upbringing. N. K. Krupskaya and A. S. Makarenko on the distinctiveness of the process of upbringing in comparison with

the process of education. Unity and interconnection of upbringing and instruction.

Upbringing, self-education and re-education.

Psychological fundamentals of the process of upbringing. The formation of communist consciousness and conduct. The role of feelings in human conduct and upbringing. Connection between feelings and conviction. The formation of habits. Habit and consciousness. Significance of will and character for the upbringing and self-education of children. Basic ways of developing will and character in pupils.

Basic principles of communist upbringing:

Communist idealism and purposiveness; active participation by children in communist construction; close connection between upbringing and labour; upbringing of personality in the collective; combination of collective and individual forms of upbringing; unity of upbringing in communist consciousness and conduct; combination of strictness and respect for personality; sequence, system and unity of upbringing influences; bearing on activity, consciousness and life experience of pupils; conformity of upbringing with childrens' growth characteristics.

6. General methods of upbringing

Concept of methods of upbringing in Soviety pedagogy. The need for system of methods of upbringing.

Methods of persuasion. Upbringing in communist view and convictions, in the process of instruction and in extra-curricular work. Concrete forms of application of methods of persuasion.

Art, radio, and television as media of upbringing. Bearing on positive qualities of the personality of the pupils.

Methods of exercises. Organisation of the life and activity of pupils as a necessary condition and means of upbringing. The significance of correct regime in school and family. Sequence and system of upbringing, in skills and habits of behaviour. Characteristics of upbringing in skills and habits of organisation, discipline and cultured behaviour.

Socially useful work of pupils as a method of upbringing. N. K. Krupskaya and A. S. Makarenko on the role and significance of labour in the upbringing of man. Pedagogic needs for the organisation of pupils' labour. Development of pupils' initiative and independence in socially useful labour.

Example as a method of upbringing. The role of social opinion. Psychological characteristics of upbringing influence of example on children of different ages. Upbringing in revolutionary and labour traditions of the people.

Methods of encouragement and punishment. Psychological and pedagogic bases of encouragement and punishment. Critique of bourgeois theories of encouragement and punishment. Types of encouragement and punishment, and their use.

Characteristics of the use of methods of upbringing in different types of school.

7. Formation of the communist world view

Upbringing of the pupils in communist consciousness. The programme of the CPSU on the formation of the communist world view.

Upbringing of pupils of different ages in the scientific-materialist world view in the system of instruction in the fundamentals of science, in extra-curricular work and in social activity. Unity of knowledge, conviction and conduct.

Scientific-atheist upbringing as a constituent part of the formation of the communist world view. Upbringing of active atheists in the school and the family. Connection of atheist upbringing with the overcoming of the remants of religious prejudices and superstitions among backward sections of the population.

8. Intellectual upbringing

Intellectual upbringing and education. The place and tasks of intellectual upbringing in the formation of an all-round personality. The founders of Marxism-Leninism on intellectual upbringing and education.

The decisive role of education in intellectual upbringing. Mastery by the pupils of the system of scientific knowledge. Development of the pupils' cognitive abilities and skills of independent thought.

The necessity of intellectual upbringing and the character of the education of the rising generation in the modern age of social and economic development.

The formation in the pupils of internal stimuli for the raising of their intellectual level and for self-education. Upbringing of interests, inclinations and talents.

9. Moral upbringing

V. I. Lenin on the essence of communist morality and moral

upbringing. The moral code of the builder of communism as the basis of moral upbringing.

Critique of bourgeois theories of moral upbringing.

Upbringing in communist attitudes to society, labour and social property - tasks of moral upbringing. Upbringing in communist features of personality: principle, honesty, truthfulness, moral purity, modesty, collectivism, comradeship and friendship.

Upbringing in socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism.

Unity and integrity of upbringing of consciousness, moral feelings and conduct of pupils. Sources and media for the development of moral feelings of children in the system of upbringing. Upbringing of moral views and convictions.

The problem of sex education in the system of moral education.

10. Labour upbringing

Labour as the basis and source of the development of personality. Overcoming the essential differences between physical and mental labour. The founders of Marxism-Leninism and the programme of the CPSU on labour upbringing. Critique of bourgeois theories of labour upbringing. The tasks and place of labour upbringing in the general system of the communist upbringing of the rising generation.

The system of labour upbringing in the school. Types of pupils' labour activities. Upbringing needs of different types of labour. The romance of labour. Pedagogic guidance of pupils' labour activities.

11. Aesthetic Upbringing

Marxist-Leninist teaching on aesthetics as the basis of the aesthetic upbringing of the rising generation. The role and place of aesthetic upbringing in the all-round development of personality. The communist tendency in aesthetic upbringing. Upbringing in aesthetic feelings and tastes, formation of concepts and judgements, cultivation of understandings and skills of the realisation of the beautiful in life and work.

The system of aesthetic upbringing in the school and in the process of instruction and extra-curricular work. Upbringing for aesthetic activity, labour, leisure and attitudes among the people.

12. Physical upbringing

The tasks and place of physical upbringing in the system of communist upbringing of the rising generation. The founders of Marxism-Leninism and the programme of the CPSU on the role of physical upbringing of children and young people.

The content and system of physical upbringing of pupils in the school. Régime of activity, instructional tasks and leisure of pupils. Alteration of different types of pupils' activities. Gymnastic exercises and sport. Cultivation in the pupils of sanitary-hygienic skills and habits. Physical culture and hiking. Physical upbringing in the process of the pupils' labour instruction. Summer health work. Calculation of developmental, sexual and individual peculiarities in physical upbringing.

13. Organisation and upbringing of the pupils' collective

The moral code of the builder of communism on upbringing for collectivism. The pupils' collective as aim and means of upbringing. Basic features of the pupils' collective. N. K. Krupskaya and A. S. Makarenko on the children's collective and its significance in communist upbringing. Primary and all-school collectives, and their interconnection.

Fundamental ways of organisation and upbringing of the pupils' collective. Identifying and fostering the active group. Creation of social opinion and the organisation of the pupils' collective activity. Criticism and self-criticism in the collective. Upbringing of personality in the collective. Pedagogic guidance of the pupils' collective. The system and perspectives in the development of the collective. Style and tone of the collective. The pedagogy of parallel action. The system of instruction and responsibility and their use in the collective.

Features of work with pupils' collectives in different age-groups. Organisation and activity of pupils' collectives in boarding-schools and schools of working and rural youth. The link between pupil and productive collectives.

14. The Pioneer and Komsomol organisations in the school.

The pioneer and Komsomol organisations as the most important groups in the system of social organisation. The principal differences between Pioneer and Komsomol organisations and bourgeois children's and youth organisations.

The pedagogic fundamentals of the activities of Pioneers and Komsomols.

Principles of activities of the Pioneer organisation; link with communist construction; communist idealism and purposiveness; link of three generations - Communists, Komsomols, Pioneers; spontaneous character of the work of the pioneer organisations; collectivism, friendship, comradeship; taking account of the development characteristics of pioneers; continuity and system in the work of Pioneer collectives; romanticism and symbolism in the Pioneer organisation.

The basic tasks of the Pioneer organisation; the structure and content of its work. Organisational forms and methods of the work of the Pioneer organisation. Active participation of Pioneers in the socio-political life of the country as the most important factor in communist upbringing. The place of games in the activity of Pioneer organisations.

Content and method of work with the Octobrist groups.

Individual work with older and younger Pioneers. Pedagogic guidance of the work of the Pioneer organisation.

Tasks and content of the work of the school Komsomol organisation. Structure of the Komsomol organisation. Link between the school and industrial Komsomol organisations.

Organisational forms and methods of the work of the Komsomol organisation. Komsomol traditions. Organisation of work with the Komsomol aktiv.

Content and methods of the work of the Komsomol organisation with Pioneers and pupils' organisations. Combination of guidance of

the Komsomol organisation of the school with the Komsomols' broad activity.

Construction of extra-curricular upbringing work through the Pioneer and Komsomol organisation. Forms and methods of the extra-curricular work of the Pioneer and Komsomol organisations.

Komsomol and pupils' meetings and Pioneer assemblies, their organisation and upbringing role in the general system of instructional, extra-curricular and social work.

Lectures, addresses, discussions and political information. Features of the construction of these forms of upbringing work among pupils of various ages. Their bearing on the conscious and life experiences of the pupils.

Conferences, debates, evenings and matinees. Organisation and methods of construction of conferences, debates and evenings. Characteristics of the setting up of scientific-atheist evenings.

School circles. Political, scientific, technical, artistic, sport and other circles. Upbringing and educational significance of circles. Recruitments of circles. Choice of themes and composition of programmes of work. Guidance of circles.

Pupils' clubs and societies.

Excursions and hikes. Educational and upbringing significance of excursions and hikes. Preparation and method of their organisation.

Acquainting pupils with selected types of art. Attendance o at the theatre, cinema, and discussion of plays and films seen. Acquainting pupils with biographies; visits to exhibitions and museums.

Organisation of exhibitions in the school.

Extra-curricular reading. Forms of collective discussion of what has been read: discussions, collective readings, readers' conferences.

The school press, radio and television.

Competitions, olympiads, reviewsand contests in the school; their pedagogic essence and significance.

15. Joint work of the school, family and society

The role of the family in the upbringing of children. Family and social upbringing.

Basic conditions and tasks of family upbringing. Means and methods of family upbringing.

Joint work of school, family and society. Work of the school with parents. Help to the family from the school. Participation of parents in the life of the school. The work of the school parents' committee.

Upbringing work with children in home care, enterprises and institutions. Help from the school in the organisation of this work.

Tasks, content and forms of pedagogic propaganda among parents and the population.

III. Theory of Instruction

16. General, labour and polytechnical education

Dependence of the content of education on the political order, economic development of society, level of technical progress and the development of science. Theory of material and formal education.

The development of education in the USSR. Tasks of education in the period of large-scale building of communism. Combination of general and polytechnical education.

General education. Its place in the system of communist upbringing. Science and the school subject. Concept of the fundamentals of science. Link between theory and practice in teaching the fundamentals of science.

Polytechnical education. K. Marx and V.I. Lenin on polytechnical education. Concept and essence of polytechnical education. Polytechnical principles in the teaching of school subjects of the science-mathematics group. Content of polytechnical education in the separate stages of school instruction.

Combination of general labour and polytechnical education in the secondary schools.

17. The process of instruction and its principles

Soviet didactics as a theory of general, labour and polytechnical education and instruction. Marxist-Leninist theory of knowledge as the methodological basis of Soviet didactics. Critique of bourgeois theories of education and instruction.

General concept of instruction as a process of mastery of knowledge, abilities and skills, the formation of the communist world view, the development of the pupils' cognitive powers and creative aptitudes. The psychological bases of the process of instruction.

Cognitive and practical activities of pupils in the process of instruction.

Unity of instruction and upbringing in the Soviet school. Upbringing and developmental character of instruction. The two-sided character of the process of instruction. Teaching and learning. Guiding role of the teacher in the process of instruction.

Self-education. The development of independence and creative activity of pupils at different stages of instruction. Motives for learning, and their role in instruction. Mastery of the skills of self-education. Formation of the cognitive of the pupils. Fundamentals links of the learning process: perception, interpretation, mastery of abilities and skills, consolidation, application of knowledge in practice. Principles of instruction in Soviet didactics:

the scientific and systematic nature of knowledge;

the link between theory and practice, instruction and labour, and the principle of communist construction;

upbringing character of instruction;

system and sequence in instruction;

consciousness and creative activity of pupils in instruction;

accessibility of instruction;

clarity of instruction;

durability of knowledge.

Didactic rules and conditions for their use.

The unity and interconnection of the principles of instruction and the Soviet school. The implementation of didactic principles in the various stages of instruction and in the different links of the instructional process.

Basic didactic problems of programmed learning and the use of teaching machines.

18. Curricula, syllabuses, textbooks

Curricula of the Soviet school and the principles of their construction: sequence and interconnection of the teaching of the separate school subjects. The educational and upbringing significance of the separate school subjects.

Syllabuses of the Soviet school and their requirements. Reflection in school syllabuses of modern achievements in science and technology. Features of the syllabuses for schools for working and rural youth.

Textbooks and school equipment. Pedagogic requirements for textbooks and school equipment. Characteristics of textbooks and school equipment for programmed learning.

19. Forms of organisation of school work

The lesson - the basic form of organisational work. Requirements for the lesson. Structure of the lesson, its dependence on teaching and upbringing tasks, the content of material studies, methods of instruction, and the developmental characteristics of the pupils. Types of lesson and the characteristics of their structure. Creative attitudes of the teacher towards the lesson. Leading experience in the rational organisation of the lesson. Combination of group and individual forms of instruction in the lesson.

Excursions as a form of organisation of instruction. Types of

excursion. The planning and organisation of excursions. Methods of conducting excursions.

Forms of organisation of labour training. Practical activities in school workshops and school experimental plots.

Optional activities, practical work and consultations, their organisation and conduct in different types of school.

Pupils' homework. Tasks and place of homework in school work. Pedagogic requirements for the organisation of pupils' homework. Features of homework in different types of school.

Characteristics of the organisation of school work in the external school.

20. Methods of instruction

Concept of the methods of instruction. Problems of methods of instruction in didactics and practice in the work of the Soviet school. Role of the word, the model and practical activity of pupils in instruction. Variety of methods of instruction in the Soviet school. Choice of method in accordance with the tasks of instruction and upbringing.

Methods of exposition of knowledge by the teacher: story, explanation, discussion, lecture. Pedagogic requirements for the methods of exposition of knowledge by the teacher. Methods developed by pupil activists for the exposition of knowledge by the teacher. Illustration and demonstration. Characteristics of the exposition of knowledge for labour activities and in the process of the study of various disciplines.

Methods of independent work by pupils under the guidance of the teacher: work with textbook and (other) book, observations, laboratory work and practical activities, exercises, graphic and creative work. Leading experience of the work of teachers in the improvement of pupils' activity in independent work. Methods of demonstration with commentary.

The development of independence and pupils' creative activity. Experimental and design work.

The application of technical media in instruction: sound recordings, slides, instructional files, radio, television.

Methods of assessment and testing of pupils' knowledge. Determining and testing pupils' knowledge by the process of exposition, reinforcement of new material and pupils' independent work. Educational and upbringing significance of the assessment of progress. Control, self-control and mutual control. Methods of construction of tests and examinations in the general educational school.

The interconnection of methods of instruction. Leading experience of the work of teachers for the rational utilisation of the variety of methods in the task of improving the effectiveness of instruction.

Characteristics of the use of methods of instruction for the various stages of instruction and in different types of school.

Characteristics of the use of methods of instruction in the external school. Pupils' independent work - the basis of the external school.

IV. Guidance for the upbringing and instruction of pupils in the school

21. The teacher, class leader and upbringing

V.I. Lenin on the teacher. Tasks of the teacher in the Soviet school. The concern of the Communist Party for the Soviet teacher.

Requirements for the teacher of the Soviet school. Ways of forming the teacher's skill. The teacher's creative work and conditions for its development. The teacher as upbringer and social worker.

Tasks, content, forms and methods of the work of the class leader in the Soviet school. The class leader as upbringer of pupils. Study of pupils. Organisation and upbringing of the class collective; extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work with pupils; formation of pupils' personality. Work with parents, the population and society.

Planning and assessment of the work of the class leader. Characteristics of the work of the class leader with pupils of different age-groups and in schools of different types.

The work of the upbringer in boarding schools, boarding establishments in rural schools, and in prolonged day schools and groups.

22. Management of the school. Organisational-pedagogic work in the school

One-man management and collective management in the work

of the school. The work of the director and leader of the instructional side of the school. The work of the pedagogic council. The role of the school's social organisations.

Planning the work of the school. Pedagogic principles of the construction of the time-table of lessons and extra-curricular work. Rules for the internal routine of the school.

Methods work in the school. Study, generalisation and inculcation of leading experience in giving help to teachers and upbringers. Raising the qualifications of teachers. Nurturing in teachers and class leaders creative attitudes towards labour, the culture of labour, striving to improve the process of instruction and upbringing. Work with young teachers. Control of the work of teachers, class leaders and upbringers.

Work of the school leaders with pupils and parents, the link between the school and attached and patron enterprises, collective and state farms.

Strengthening the instructional-material base of the school. School accounts.

The activity of the organs of public education in the guidance of the school.

Appendix 3

Teaching Practice - Pedagogic Institute Programme

Students in years III - IV (IV - V)

Explanatory note

Practice for instructional-upbringing work in the school takes place (in the four-year course) in the 3rd year, during one school term, and in the 4th year for one school half-year; or (in the five-year course) in the 4th year for one term, and in the 5th year for a school half-year.

Pedagogic practice is an important stage in the training of the student for the completion of the whole scheme of the teacher's work.

The content of practice becomes progressively complex at each stage of the student's course.

Pedagogic practice for 3rd and 4th year students (or 4th and 5th year) in pedagogic institutes has the following aims:

(a) to teach students to apply in practice the knowledge gained in the institute;

(b) to teach future teachers to plan and carry out independently instructional-upbringing work in their specialism and, in the capacity of class leader, for the organisation and fostering of the class collective.

(c) to foster in the students a love for the pedagogic profession;

(d) to inculcate an interest in scientific research work, in

generalisation and analysis of the leading pedagogic experience of the schools;

To teach pupils to perceive inter-disciplinary connections and the interconnection of theory and practice; to nurture deep convictions in ideals, in accordance with the psychological characteristics of their age and the range of ideas in the field of school subjects. To teach by various means intellectual activity, to develop love of knowledge, special and general interests, encouraging such characteristics as persistence, systematic work, hard work, will-power.

In the course of all pedagogic practice, progressively to realise in life the Leninist principle that the school must give young people the fundamentals of knowledge and intellectual skill to work out communist objectives by themselves.

The successful implementation of these aims depends to a considerable extent on efficient organisation, planning of practice, and opportune help for the students from the staff of the VUZ and the school. In this connection, it is necessary, in the period of preparation for practice: to organise an instructional methods seminar for the students, using the resources of the lecturers of the departments of pedagogy, psychology, methods and specialist teaching subjects, to check the readiness of the students for teaching practice in the schools, to acquaint them with new developments in pedagogic, methodological and specialist literature, give recommendations and advice on the solution of problems of theory and best practice in instruction and upbringing in the school.

The first week of practice is spent in getting to know the school, the class and the organisation of upbringing work with the pupils. In the time that follows, the student in practice takes part in the entire instructional and upbringing work in accordance with the plan laid down for the guidance of practice.

Students of the 3rd and 4th years (or 4th and 5th years) during the period of teaching practice carry out the work of a teacher in their own specialism, the duties of class leader's helper (in years III-IV), and of class leader of the senior classes, make psychological-pedagogic observations, and also perform socially useful work in the school and among the population.

One of the most important parts of the students' practice is collecting material for course work and graduation work in pedagogy.

The final stage of practice is the concluding conference. Checking and assessment of students' work is done in accordance with the instructions for teaching practice.

The Preparation of the student for instructional work in his subject

3rd Year

Introduction to the school. Acquaintance with the school and its system of working, the class in which the student will carry out his practice, and with the work of the teacher of the subject (discussion with the director, the senior leader of the school, the secretary of the Komsomol organisation and with the teacher and class leader, visiting their lessons, and various types of extra-curricular work.) Consequently, the student becomes acquainted with the style and pedagogic system of the teacher's work, gets an idea of the pupils'

progress, of the links between the school and production, of the forms and methods of improving the teacher's pedagogic skill, the prevention of failure and the overcoming of repeating.

Instructional-upbringing work in the subject

1. Getting to know the organisation of instructional-upbringing work in the class. Study of the teacher's documentation.

2. Study of the level of knowledge and the individual characteristics of the pupils. To this end, the students in practice attend all the lessons of their own class, attend their extra-curricular activities, associate with pupils during spare time, etc.

3. After study of the class, the student in practice draws up an individual plan of work for the whole period of practice. Besides this, the student draws up a perspective and lesson plan for his subject. Having planned the scheme of lessons by topics or in parts, the student must acquire an elementary knowledge of basing the broken-down topics pedagogically on separate lessons, determining the types of lessons and how they are to be connected, planning pedagogical tasks and the rational structure of the separate lessons.

Beginning with the second week of practice, the student will conduct two or three lessons a week in his specialism under the guidance of the teacher. Analysis of these lessons will be carried out in collaboration with the group of students undergoing practice in the same school.

The 3rd year student acquires in his lessons the first understanding of the organisation of direct, group and individual work of pupils in the lesson and in the home, and learns to use technical

media in education (films, radio, epidiascope, tape recorder, etc.)

4. Study of other forms of instructional work: excursions, practical activities in workshops, on school plots, self-training in boarding and prolonged day schools, seminars, practical periods and discussions.

5. Preparation and construction of a scheme of lessons by topics or parts, but not more than 6-8 lessons.

6. In the process of practice the 3rd year student must acquire the ability to use his knowledge of pedagogy, psychology, methods, special subjects, to instil into his work practice the best experience of the school, on the basis of the present state of science and technology.

Special attention is paid to the development of skills of realising the unity of educational and upbringing tasks in the lesson, to the formation of the fundamentals of a communist world view by the children, to the ability to link instructional work with extra-curricular work (use in the lesson of knowledge and skills acquired by the pupils in extra-curricular work; the use of extra-curricular work for the development of the pupils' individual aptitudes, the development of pupils' activity and independence on the basis of their interests or the realisation of work fulfilled.

Extra-curricular work. The carrying out of 1 or 2 activities of the subject circle, subject excursions; participation in the preparation of a "thematic evening". Carrying out activities with backward pupils.

Participation in the methods work of the school. Study of the work of the school for the improvement of the ideological-political level and methodological qualifications of the teachers and class leaders.

Study of the work in subject methods and interdisciplinary commissions, and participation in their work. Acquaintance with the work of the school in leading experience in his own specialism. Making visual aids.

4th(5th) year)

Instructional-upbringing work in the subject

1. The 4th (5th) year student conducts independently instructional-upbringing work in his specialism; becomes acquainted with the school in which he will carry out his practice, with the year's plan of school work, with the construction of the instructional and upbringing work of the school, the organisation of the pupils' collective, the work of the school with parents, and with the school's activities directed to overcoming repeating.

2. Construction by the student of an individual plan of work for the whole period of practice. Construction of a perspective and lesson plan of work in the subject, and also a plan of instructional-upbringing work.

3. Working out a scheme of lessons by topics of the subject to be studied.

4. Carrying out assessment of senior pupils' knowledge, continuously and by topics.

5. In the course of practice the student must utilise modern methods and ways of working, and technical media of instruction.

6. The 4th year student must acquire the ability to improve and modify teaching methods by using the same instructional material with parallel classes, taking account of the peculiarities of each class; he must learn to change the structure of the lesson and methods of teaching in older and younger classes, in accordance with the age, level of development and instructional preparation of the pupils; (he must learn) to carry out in practice the best experience of school teachers, guaranteeing to the pupils a solid knowledge of the subject studied, and anticipating pupils' shortcomings.

In the course of instructional work the student improves his skills in lesson-planning, his ability to determine the types and rational structure of lessons, to make a choice of ways of constructing the lesson, and to conduct individual work during the lesson. Special attention must be paid to the development of the students' ability to construct upbringing work in the lesson and to connect it with extra-curricular, pioneer and komsomol work, for the formation of the fundamentals of the pupils' scientific world view in the conditions of the organic unity of instruction and upbringing.

Extra-curricular work. Study of the system of the school's extra-curricular work, and the links between extra-curricular and class work. Leading subject circles. Organisation of olympiads, competitions, subject evenings. Drawing pupils into district and city olympiads and competitions. Publishing wall newspapers.

Familiarity with the work of the komsomol organisation, Planning of work, conduct of komsomol meetings.

In the organisation of extra-curricular work, the student must learn to be guided by the teachers' collective, and develop his independence.

Scientific-experimental work. The student will continue work on the selected topic begun in the 3rd (4th) year (preparation for graduation work in pedagogy, and will prepare material for an address to the scientific-theoretical conference or scientific-experimental circle.

Methods Work. Participation in the subject commission of the school. Participation in the work of the school and inter-school methods groups.

Participation in the final conference on practice. Preparation of an address or talk based on the analysis of the experience of practice. Preparation of an address on a particular topic.

Preparation of the student for the work of class leader

3rd (4th) year

During teaching practice in the 3rd (4th) year the student must work as an assistant to the class leader.

The basic tasks of the student in practice are: study of the system of the class leader's upbringing work, acquiring the skills to elucidate the pupils' level of cultivation resulting from participation in this work, the ability to set up concrete tasks in upbringing during the period of teaching practice, to plan upbringing work and master the forms and methods of pupils' upbringing.

1. Study of the levels of pupils' conduct and ways of determining it.

Before practice, the student constructs a programme of pupil observation. During practice the student must acquire the skills of purposeful observation of the pupils in the process of their instructional, labour and social activity, master the skills of establighing and developing concrete tasks of upbringing work in the period of teaching practice; he must study school documentation, and make observations of the conduct of pupils out of school.

On the instructions of the teacher, the student in practice must visit pupils at home, carry on with them discussions on bringing out the whole range of interests and needs of the personality, and hold discussions with class pupils and their parents.

The results of pupil study must be entered in a diary by the student in practice.

2. Work with the class collective and the pioneer organisation.

Drawing the class collective and the pioneer detachment, into the socially useful labour activities of the school, district and town. Raising proposals before the collective and detachment. Organisation of the search for useful activities with the pupils themselves.

Work for the inculcation of skills for using the rules of conduct, the regime of the school, the daily routine. Organisation of duties. Organisation of socialist emulation in the pioneer detachment. Conduct of ethical discussions, pupils' meetings, excursions, cultural trips in accordance with the plans of the class leader.

Conducting in the pioneer detachment discussions of the life and work of V.I. Lenin.

Joint work with the leader of the pioneer detachment and brigade. Participation in preparation of the pioneer assembly, in the work of the detachment in the "zone of pioneer operations", in the organisation of competitions on the theme "The detachment - fellow-traveller of the 7-year plan".

3. The work of the class leader with the pupils of the class.

Understanding by the student of the role of the class leader in rallying the teachers of the class for the fulfilment of the tasks planned. Participation in conferences with the teachers of the class, individual discussion with teachers on concrete problems on the upbringing of the pupils. Participation in the conduct of "thematic evenings", multiple excursions, organised by teachers of various subjects. Acquaintance with the unified needs of the pupils, and observation of their realisation by the teachers of the class.

4. Work with the pupils' parents. Study by the students of the actual conditions of family upbringing of 2 or 3 pupils. Analysis of the level of the child's needs in the family and the school. Ability to draw pedagogic conclusions from the comparison. Participation in work on the ascertaining of unified needs.

Participation in the conduct of class leaders' meetings. Preparation and conduct of discussions with the pupils' parents on problems of upbringing.

5. Involvement of society in the upbringing of pupils.

Familiarity of the students with different forms of participation by production collectives and society in the upbringing of pupils. Organisation of pupils' meetings with veterans and shock-workers.

Joint work with leaders of production. Guidance of pupils' patronage work in production (care for plantations, patron concerts, etc.)

Establishment of links between the pioneer detachment and the production collective, and the brigade of communist labour.

6. Assessment and planning of upbringing work. Mastery of the system of skills necessary for independent planning of upbringing work. Analysis and assessment of results of upbringing work carried out in the class, elucidation of change in the level of cultivation of the collective and individual pupils. Independent construction of a plan of upbringing work in the class for the following term, and psychological-pedagogical study of one pupil at the end of practice.

4th (5th) year

The fundamental tasks of the student in practice are: to strengthen the knowledge and skills acquired in the 3rd (4th) year in upbringing work, to learn independent observation of the collective and individual pupils, to be able to carry out specific tasks in upbringing work and plan a system of means for their realisation, to implement their implementation by means of organisation of various types of activity with the collective and individual pupils, and analyse and study the results of upbringing work.

1. Independent observation of the pupils' level of upbringing.

Improvement of skills acquired during teaching practice in the 3rd (4th) year. Assessment of age and individual characteristics in

determining the level of upbringing of the collective and individual pupils.

Combination of study of pupils with (that of) upbringing influence on them. Ability to perceive change in pupils' upbringing level.

Reflection on observations and conclusions for instructional-upbringing work in the pedagogical diary of the student in practice.

2. Setting pedagogic tasks and their solution.

Independent setting of specific tasks for the upbringing of the collective and of individual pupils during the term; half-year assessments in the formation of the new man; observation of the level of upbringing and individual characteristics of the pupils. Having studied recommendations of the class leader and the management of the school, the student in practice independently constructs a plan of upbringing work for the period of teaching practice.

3. Work with the collective and the Komsomol organisation.

Drawing the class collective and the komsomol organisation into the struggle for sound knowledge, the school's socially useful labour, and the productive activities of the district. Work with the pioneer organisation of his own school. Improvement of work skills with the active group of the senior pupils. Work with the komsomol bureau of the class. Formation of social awareness, the necessity of the collective for individual pupils. Work for the inculcation of skills of control and self-control in study, life, work and social activity.

Organisation of positive moral experience of the pupils in

combination with elucidation and persuasion. Conduct of discussions, Political information, readers' conferences, debates. Conduct of excursions, cultural trips, senior pupils' evenings.

Participation in the preparation and conduct of Komsomol meetings, help for the Komsomol members in the organisation of sporting activities, wall newspapers. Combination of pedagogic guidance with the development of pupils' initiative and independence.

4. Work with the teachers of the class.

Involvement of the teachers in the planning of upbringing work in the class and in the carrying out of planned upbringing tasks. Conduct of conferences with the teachers of the class on questions of individual work with pupils. Work for the realisation of the unity of the pupils' needs and control of their use by means of lesson visiting, observation of pupils' extra-curricular work. Joint work with teachers for the development of pupils' cognitive interests.

5. Work with the pupils' parents.

Study by the student of the actual conditions of the pupils' family upbringing.

Elucidation for the parents of the tasks of upbringing, rendering them help in work with the children. Conduct of meetings of the parents of the class. Involvement of the parents' committee and the parents' society in work with the pupils. Familiarising parents with pedagogic literature and propaganda for pedagogic knowledge by means of discussions, addresses and lectures.

6. Drawing society into the upbringing of the pupils and the link with the productive collective.

Organisation of meetings with foremost workers in production. Organisation of patrol work of producers with the pupils' collective komsomol organisation and individual pupils.

Conducting joint evenings, cultural trips, Sunday events and sports occasions with komsomols in production. Helping the productive collective in the fulfillment of labour tasks. Giving producers an account of the results of the pupils' instructional, labour and social activity.

At the conclusion of teaching practice, the student makes an analysis of the work carried out in pupils' upbringing, observes changes in the level of upbringing of the collective and individual pupils, and formulates upbringing tasks with the class in the second half-year.

Training of the student as future teacher and public-spirited person

3rd (4th) year

The following types of activity are organised for the training of the student as a public-spirited person:

1. Participation in the work of teachers', komsomol and trade union organisations.

2. Delivery of one paper or lecture before the parents' society on a particular question of the country's socio-political life, on pedagogic questions, and on achievements in science, technology and art.

3. Participation in the production of wall newspapers in the

school and in the patron enterprise.

4. Participation in mass cultural work among the population.

(4th (5th) year

In the period of teaching practice, 4th (5th) year students carry out the following types of social work:

1. Participation in the work of teachers', komsomol and trade union organisations, and also in the work of society (in the collective or state farm or enterprise).

2. Delivery of papers and lectures on specific questions of the country's socio-political life, atheist topics, pedagogic questions, and on the abhievements of science, technology and art.

3. Participation in the production of wall newspapers, radio programmes, photographic newspapers and displays; participation in mass cultural and sport work.

Practical activities in school health in the period of teaching practice

During pedagogic practice in the 3rd year, the students become acquainted with the fundamentals of hygienic standards and methods of hygienic and health services in the instruction and upbringing of the pupils.

1. Having made use of medical charts and information from the school nurse, analyses the condition of the health and physical development of the children in the registered class.

2. Makes a health estimate of class furniture the equipment of

the cabinets and workshops, and the seating of the children at table and desk.

3. Makes a health estimate of the school premises in the light of fundamental hygienic standards (area, cubic capacity, natural and artificial lighting, ventilation, heating, arrangement of furniture.)

4. Makes an health estimate of the work routine of the school and the timetable.

5. Makes a health estimate of the physical and labour upbringing of the pupils.

6. Gathers information of the régime of two or three pupils in the class, and makes an assessment of it, with regard to the pupils' age and conditions.

Appendix 4

Practice in Pioneer Camps - Pedagogic Institute Programme

Project

Explanatory Note

The pioneer camp is the pedagogic institutes' basis for the raising of the practical training of students for work in the communist upbringing of the pupils in the school. In accordance with the instructions of the Ministry of Education of the RSFSR, students' practice is carried out in the 2nd year (in the 4th semester) of four-year courses and in the 3rd year (6th semester) of five-year courses.

The preparation of the student for practice is organised by the Department of Pedagogy together with the regional and district Committee of the Party and the VLKSM Committee for the special programme, taking into account the specific nature of pioneer work in health institutions.

The readiness of students for practice in health institutions is determined by means of a colloquium on the programme of seminar work, which is held before they go into practice.

Students' practice in pioneer camps and other health - and upbringing institutions (pupils' brigades, inter-kolkhoz camps, children's health areas, instructional-experimental farms, etc.) will give them an all-round acquaintance with the various forms of work with pioneers and school children, the ability to choose the most effective methods and means of collective and individual work with pioneers, in the development of the interests and aspirations of

pioneers towards creative activity in their detachments, the development of the pioneers' initiative and independence. The students' work in the camp, in the capacity of regular leader or supernumerary student in training, prepares them for instructional-upbringing work in the senior years.

The important task of the students in the period of teaching practice is the utilisation of wide opportunities for the organisation of useful leisure and the strengthening of the children's health, the inculcation in them of labour and outdoor skills, the inculcation of the skills for life in the collective, the broadening of their outlook and the enrichment of their understanding of nature and communist construction in our country.

The content of students' summer practice must include the following basic elements: organisational work, physical and health education, hiking and local lore, socio-political work and activity for the pioneers' technical creativity.

During the whole period of practice the student will be a member of the pedagogical collective of the health-upbringing institution.

The students in practice, together with the leaders of the institution, will plan the work for the whole period of the children's stay and also for each single day, carrying out systematic supervision, assessment and analysis of their own and the collective's activity, entering this in their diaries.

The department of pedagogy will arrange methodological guidance for students in practice through their deputies and senior

pioneer camp leaders. Having attended the camps, the members of the department will render the students and the leadership of the camp help with their work.

At the end of practice, the student will give to the lecturer of the department of pedagogy (the group leader) a description of his work in the camp, and a diary of upbringing work. Before leaving the camp the department of pedagogy will give the students a sample list of concrete themes on upbringing work in the camp for the students to work on during their practice. At the end of practice, the students will submit a theoretical assessment of the chosen theme, together with the diary and record.

Assessment is made on the basis of all the materials characterising the student's work.

After careful analysis of the whole period of practice, a discussion will be held at the start-of-session methods conference of students in practice and their tutors.

Content of Work

1. Work for the organisation of the detachment collective

The study of children. Observation and assessment of aptitudes and interests, abilities and skills of the pioneers. Participation in the staffing of the detachments and links according to ages and interests. Choice of detachment and link councils. Distribution of assignments in the detachment.

Distribution of pioneer tasks. Planning the work of the detachment. Organisation of competitions. Preparation and arrangement of detachment assemblies.

2. Socio-political upbringing

Guidance of pioneer activities for the fulfilment of the Solemn Promise and Rules of the Young Pioneers of the Soviet Union.

Work for the upbringing of pioneers in high moral standards through the example of the life and works of V.I. Lenin, the revolutionary and labour traditions of the Soviet people, the Communist Party, the Leninist Komsomol, and the Lenin All-Union Pioneer Organisation. Elucidation of the ideals of communism and the ways of building a communist society on the USSR. Acquainting the pioneers with the most important events in the country and the world, with the life and activities of pioneer organisations in the countries of People's Democracy and active participation in practical activity. International education of pioneers, systematic work in atheist upbringing. Use of various forms and methods of socio-political upbringing of pioneers: pioneers' symbols, attributes, political information, discussions, receptions, debates, parades, meetings, work with newspapers, books, journals, emulation of the best detachment, camp traditions.

3. Labour upbringing

Involvement of pioneers and pupils in various kinds of labour activity. Guidance of labour activity towards self-reliance. Upbringing in skills of domestic work. Organisation of pioneers' camp duties. Pedagogic guidance of work in the camp and in the area of pioneer activities.

Organisation of pioneers' work in public services and camp

amenities and equipment. Work for the preparation by the pioneers of useful things for the camp and kindergartens under its patronage.

Involvement of pioneers, according to their capacity, in participation in socially useful work and help for local state and collective farms and enterprises.

Emulation of pioneers in the organisation of socially useful activity.

(Note: In pupils' and instructional-experimental farms, the labour activity of pupils is organised in accordance with the plans for senior pupils' summer practice and experimental work. The student will carry out pedagogic guidance of this activity, organise socialist emulation, teach communist attitudes towards work and comradely mutual help).

4. Organisation of Physical Education and Health Work

Maintenance of the daily régime. Inculcation of hygienic and health skills in the pioneers. Giving help to the instructors in physical upbringing in the organisation of physical exercise, bathing; and other parts of the daily régime.

Organisation of supervised games and games in the locality. Organisation of sport and hikes in the detachment. Running excursions and trips in the neighbourhood. Preparation and organisation of sports competitions in the detachment. Setting up corners of sporting achievement. Preparation and repair of sporting equipment.

5. Organisation of work for aesthetic upbringing

Inculcation of love of and interest in music, art, sculpture, singing, dance, literature and nature.

Organisation of circles of individual artistic activity, pioneer song and dance ensembles, puppet and shadow theatres, choral and vocal groups, festivals, carnivals, festivals of song, exhibitions of fine and applied arts. Use of film, television, radio and literature in the aims of aesthetic upbringing.

6. Naturalist and local lore work in the camp

Acquainting children with the natural environment. Organisation of collections of material for herbaria and collections for the tasks of the school, museums, drug-stores, camps, etc. Setting up nature corners. Organisation of circles and links of young naturalists, "green patrols", experimental work on personal plots in the camp. Organisation of exhibitions of garden and wild flowers, medicinal herbs, plants, useful and harmful insects. Organisation of botanical and zoological games, quizzes, crosswords, "Russian forest" holidays, "flower" and "harvest" holidays, organisation of the work of "red pathfinders".

Setting up camp or meteorological station, organisation of fundamental meteorological observations and setting up observations of natural physical phenomena.

7. Work for the development of pioneers' technical activity

Inculcation of interest in technical creativity in the pioneers.

Organisation of the work of technical centres in the camp: aero-modelling, ship modelling, photography, radio, "clever hands", signallers, electricians, etc. Development of technical thinking and keenness in the process and organisation of games with a technical content, and the utilisation of technical media and games in the locality.

Utilisation of different forms of propaganda for scientific-technical knowledge: discussions on the achievements of science and technology, camp-fires, evening meetings, competitions, quizzes, "clever hands" days, excursions for first-hand acquaintance with agricultural technology, production of radio, light, photo-newspapers and bulletins.

General conclusions on the experience of upbringing work in the camp - specimen topics for student essays

Organisation of the children's collective in the camp

1. Experience of the work of preparation of children for departure for the camp.
2. Education of the children's collective in setting up the daily routine.
3. Experience of the organisation of work of detachments according to interests.
4. Characteristics of the organisation of the pioneers collective in the conditions of adaptation to the camp.

5. Upbringing for friendship and comradeship in the detachment or the collective.

6. The work of the leader in upbringing for initiative and independence of the pupils in the detachment.

7. Methods of elucidation and utilisation of abilities and skills of the pioneers in the detachment.

8. Upbringing of pioneers in communist convictions and high moral values in the conditions of the pioneer camp.

Socio-political upbringing of pioneers in the camp

1. Forms and methods of familiarising pioneers with the socio-political trends in our country and abroad.

2. Upbringing of children in the example of the life and work of V.I. Lenin.

3. Newspaper and book work in the camp.

4. The wall newspaper in the detachment and the brigade.

5. Upbringing of pioneers in the revolutionary traditions of the Soviet people.

6. Organisation and conduct of significant anniversaries of the Soviet people.

7. Upbringing of pioneers in feelings of Soviet patriotism and proletarian internationalism.

8. The work of the leader in the camp in familiarising pioneers with the heroic past of their own area.

9. Upbringing of pioneers in feelings of pride and love for the Motherland.

10. Political information in the camp as a medium of pioneers' socio-political upbringing.

Labour upbringing of pioneers in the camp

1. Formation of communist attitudes towards labour in the process of socially useful labour in the camp.
2. Formation in the pioneers of domestic work skills in the camp.
3. Development of the pioneers' independence and activity in the process of the organisation of self-service in the camp.
4. Upbringing of pioneers in collectivism in the process of socially useful activity in the camp.
5. Development of the pioneers' activity and independence in the process of socially useful activity.
6. Upbringing in communist attitudes towards state property and social property.
7. Development of pioneers' technical abilities in the camp.
8. Elements of play and romance in the pioneers' labour activities in the camp.
9. Forms and methods of organisation of the pioneers' socially useful activity in the camp, conducive to successful labour upbringing.

Aesthetic upbringing

1. Aesthetic upbringing in labour.
2. Nature excursions as a means of upbringing in love for the Motherland and feeling for the beautiful.

3. Independent artistic activity as a means of aesthetic upbringing of pioneers in the camp.

4. Inculcation of skills of cultural conduct of pioneers in the camp.

5. Conduct of song festivals in the camp.

6. Organisation of a puppet theatre in the camp.

7. Organisation and work of a "green theatre" in the camp.

8. Conduct of a festival in the camp.

Physical education and health work

1. Conduct of physical exercises in the camp.

2. Conduct of the work of physical education circles in the camp.

3. Preparation and entering of pioneers for the BGTO summer norms in the camp.

4. Organisation of sports competitions in the camp.

5. Preparation and running of one- and two-day trips.

6. Organisation of para-military games in the camp.

7. Health work in the camp (utilisation of the scientific resources of nature).

8. Methods of teaching swimming to children in the camp.

9. Characteristics of the work of the fizruk in the camp.

Work of young technicians and naturalists

1. Organisation, content and methods of work of "clever hands" circles in the camp.

2. Experience of the work of camp workshops.

3. Organisation of the "nature corner" in the camp.

4. Development of children's technical ability in the camp.

5. Content of young naturalists' work in the camp.

6. Teaching pioneers about nature in the home area.

7. Polytechnical excursions with the pioneers to factory, enterprise, collective farm, state farm, cattle-breeding farm, selective station, electrical station, RTS, mill, etc.

8. Observations in the camp meteorological station.

9. Experience of organising flower festivals in the camp.

Local lore and excursion work

1. Organisations of excursions in the camp.

2. Conduct of trips in the camp to places of historical interest.

3. Excursions to local folk-lore museums.

4. Study of socialist transformations.

Work of the upbringer and leader in the camp

1. Preparation of students for camp practice.

2. The work of the upbringer in the camp.

3. The work of the leader in the camp.

4. The work of the senior leader in the camp.

Reading for students in summer practice in the camp.

1. Krupskaya, N.K. Life in the Camp. (APN RSFSR, 1957).
2. " Problems of the Pioneer Movement (Molodaya gvardiya, 1963.)
3. " The Leader's First Handbook (Mol. gv., 1958).
4. Panova, N.S. The Octobrist (Mol. gv. 1961.)
5. " Pioneer Summer (Mol. gv., 1954).
6. " The Pioneer Brigade in Summer (Mol. gv., 1961).
7. Taborko, V.) The Brigade Works Round the Year (M. g. 1962).
8. Orlova, E.) When you go with the Detachment (M. g. 1964).
9. " The Sound of the Bugle (Rabochyi, 1960.)
10. Balanenko, B., Kabanov, R., Spirina, L., Umanskii, L. The Vera Tereshchenko Pioneer Camp (Uchpedgiz 1963.)
11. Balanenko & Kabanov, The Pioneer Sporting Summer (DOSAAF 1962).
12. Studencheskii, N. Pioneer Games in the area (M. g. 1959).
13. " Pioneer Brigade and Detachment Games (APN 1962)
14. Gukasova, A.M. Children's Labour in the Pioneer Camp (Uchpedgiz, 1958.)
15. " Young Naturalist's Calendar (M. gv. 1962.)
16. Livshits, S.A. Work with Young Folklorists and Geographers (Profizdat, 1957.)
17. Gerd, S. My Nature Corner (Detpedgiz, 1961.)
18. Babanskii, Yu.K. Individual Technical Activity of Pioneers (APN RSFSR, 1962.)
19. Babanskii, Yu.K. 99 Suggestions for One Summer (M. gv. 1964.)

Programma pedagogicheskikh institutov:

Pedagogicheskaya praktika studentov v pionerskikh lageryakh

(Glavnoe upravlenie vysshikh i srednikh pedagogicheskikh uchebnkyh zavedanii Ministerstva prosveshcheniya RSFSR.

Moskva: Prosveshchenie, 1964.)

Appendix 5

East Germany: Pedagogy Syllabus for secondary teachers (extracts)

(Ministerium für Volksbildung: Studienprogramm für die Ausbildung der Lehrer für die Oberstufe der allgemeinbildende polytechnischen Oberschule im Fach Pädagogik. Volk und Wissen Volkseigener Verlag, Berlin, 1965.)

I. Statement of aims

II. Plan of Studies

III. Content of Instruction

- A. Fundamentals of pedagogy
- B. Theory of socialist instruction
- C. Theory of the instructional and formative teaching and learning process
- D. Introduction to problems of educational and working rules for teachers and instructors
- E. History of education, comparative education
- F. Arrangement of the content of practice, and special seminar

IV. Literature

III. Content of Instruction

A. Fundamentals of pedagogy

Foreword

In "Fundamentals of Pedagogy" the dialectical character of pedagogical science and the Marxist development of personality are examined under the conditions of the comprehensive construction of socialism; in this, the social, political and philosophical fundamentals and significance of the construction of the unified socialist educational

system are to be grasped above all. The historical aspect must be paid attention to in the exposition of this part of the pedagogy course.

...The role and function of work in the pedagogic process is to be established theoretically...

1. Subject-matter and tasks of pedagogy.

1.1 Subject-matter of pedagogy; problems of the basic concepts of pedagogy - Bildung and Erziehung; connections between education and instruction, their dependence on social and especially on scientific development, and their significance for the socialist educational system.

1.2 The system of pedagogic science; the links between pedagogy and other sciences (philosophy, psychology, physiology, sociology, cybernetics, mathematics, medicine, etc.)

1.3 Marxist-Leninist philosophy as the methodological basis of pedagogic science.

1.4 The tasks of pedagogic science in the period of the comprehensive construction of socialism...

2. The Function of Education and Instruction in Society.

The connection and relevance of education and instruction to the socio-economic structure of society and the development of productive forces. (Instruction and education in antagonistic class-society; instruction and education under socialism and communism).

2.2 The unity of politics, economics, ideology and pedagogy. The connection between education and instruction and the development of productive forces under socialism.

2.3 The dialectic interconnection between the school and life as the fundamental law of socialist school policy and pedagogy.

2.4 The claims of society, the technical revolution and the cultural revolution on education and instruction in the comprehensive construction of socialism.

3. Instruction and the development of man.

3.1 Pedagogic aspects of the development of personality under the conditions of the comprehensive development of socialism.

(Interconnection between society and the individual in the historical process; the determination of the nature of man as the totality of social connections (Marx); the development of socialist personality, the perception of social life and the changing of nature.)

3.2 The possibility and necessity of man's all-round development.

The spiritual, moral and physical development of personality through active participation in life (systematic instruction, work, social activity. The linking of "productive work with instruction and gymnastic... as the only method of producing the all-round developed man". (Marx).

3.3 The role of work, its goal and function in the pedagogic process. Teaching readiness and skill for work in the service of socialist society.

Work as medium and method.

Work as object of education.

3.4 The relationship between the personality and the collective.

The nature of socialist communal work.

Contrast with bourgeois interpretations of the relationship between the personality and the group.

3.5 The dialectical relationship between leadership and individual activity, teaching and self-teaching in the pedagogic process.

4. Aims and tasks of socialist education in the DDR.

4.1 The aim of education and instruction.

4.1.1 Theoretical and practical significance of educational and instructional aims.

4.1.2 Educational and instructional aims as the reflection of political, economic and cultural tasks. The interdependence of educational and instructional aims and the actual historical situation. The class character of educational and instructional aims.

4.2 Modern socialist general education, it s character and criteria. The systematic teaching of skills... The development of logical thought. Mathematical, scientific and polytechnical education and instruction; Civic, social and moral education and instruction; Mother tongue and foreign language education and instruction; Aesthetic and physical education and instruction;
The interconnection between general and special education.

5. Principles and construction of the unified socialist educational system

5.1 The educational political principles: social, state, secular, unified; the right to education; their historical development.

5.2 Their further development and realisation in the unified socialist educational system.

5.2.1 The principle of linking education with life, theory with practice, learning and study with productive activity.

5.2.2 The principle of the unity of education and instruction... in the pedagogic process.

5.2.3 The principle of furthering the gifts and talents of all pupils. Advancement of the children of workers and peasants.

5.2.4 The principle of co-operation between statee establishments, social organisations and the family in socialist education and instruction.

5.3 The construction of the unified socialist educational system in the DDR.

5.3.1 The structure of the unified socialist educational system as stated in the law on the unified socialist educational system.

. . . . . .

E. History of Education, Comparative Education

1. The progressive inheritance of classical bourgeois pedagogy - its school, political and pedagogic outlines.

A selection of examples from the field of progressive bourgeois pedagogy is chosen in the interests of the treatment of certain points in depth.

Suggestions: The beginnings of bourgeois pedagogy (Ratke and Komenský)

Pedagogy in the age of the French Revolution

The national education movement in Germany

Pestalozzi and his times

Adolf Diesterweg and his times

2. The scientific foundation of pedagogy by Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels

2.1 The sources of Marxist pedagogy.

2.2 Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels on the pedagogic foundations of socialist education and instruction.

2.3 Marx and Engels on the educational policy of the German and international labour movement.

3. The educational policy and pedagogic accomplishments of the German labour movement

3.1 The advances in educational policy of German social democracy and the educational policy work of Wilhelm Liebknecht and August Bebel.

3.2 School policy and pedagogy of the German labour movement up to the October Socialist Revolution.

3.2.1 The struggle of German social democracy for a Marxist educational policy programme. (The school policy programme of Clara Zetkin, 1904, and the Mannheim articles of 1906.)

3.2.2 The contribution of Clara Zetkin and Käte Duncker to te development of a Marxist theory of family education.

3.2.3 The pedagogic significance and accomplishments of the socialist youth organisation - Karl Liebknecht.

3.3 The educational policy and pedagogy of the German labour movement under the influence of the Socialist October Revolution and the November Revolution.

3.3.1 Lenin, Krupskaya and Makarenko on the basic problems of educational policy and pedagogy; the struggle to implement their ideas in the Soviet school; the signficance for the present.

3.3.2 Communist school programmes and the educational policy struggle of the German Communist Party.

3.3.3 The revolutionary pedagogic heritage and its realisation in the school of the DDR.

4. Critique of the educational policy and pedagogy of German Imperialism

4.1 Typical tendencies of bourgeois reformist pedagogy under imperialism, and their social basis.

4.2 The nature and function of imperialist pedagogy in the struggle against the labour movement and in the service of German imperialism's plans for world domination. The furtherance of imperialist pedagogy in West Germany.

5. The two ways for educational policy and pedagogic development in two German states after 1945

The objective conditions and the necessity of developing a democratic education in all Germany after the liberation from Hitler fascism.

The anti-fascist-democratic revolution in education in East Germany and its historical significance; the efforts of the progressive forces in the Western Zone for a democratisation of education, and their outcome.

The restoration of imperialist educational policy and pedagogy in Western Germany; the influence of the state-monopoly power system under present conditions in Western Germany.

The social transformation of education in the DDR; the historical position of the unified socialist educational system in the DDR.

6. Problems of Comparative Education

6.1 The development and achievements of the socialist cultural revolution in the states of the socialist camp, with regard to their national and historical needs.

(References to necessary difficulties in overcoming the feudal-capitalist past.)

6.2 Educational policy and school reform in certain economically advanced capitalist countries in the age of the technical revolution.

6.3 Educational aims and tasks in the young national states.

7. Arrangement of the content of practice and special seminars

Introductory practice

1. Introductory practice has a significant place in basic pedagogic education... The students from the beginning are faced with scientific-pedagogic problems to enable them to go on with the solution of these problems through observation as well as through direct confrontation with the problems of school practice. Practice is arranged according to local possibilities.

2. In the interest of effective organisation of lodging and excursions, a theoretical introduction of about 15 seminars is arranged. Reading hours are arranged as a preparatory part of practice.

The following topics may be dealt with:

(a) Aims and tasks of education and instruction in the unified socialist educational system. The central problem is the derivation of educational and instructional aims from the objective

furthering of social development and the technical and cultural revolution. Attention is also paid to the general-special education problem-complex.

(b) Overview of the construction of unified socialist education and instruction.

(c) Fundamental rules of socialist education and instruction.

(d) Organisational-methodological organisation of instruction under the heading of rationalisation and reinforcement of learning (e.g. programmed learning).

(e) Planning and preparation of instruction.

(f) Themes from the history of education.

3. The activity of students in practice must include:

(a) Pedagogical activity in external educational work.

(b) Visits to various establishments of the unified socialist educational system (kindergartens, special schools, factory Berufsschulen, youth hostel) with precise guidance of observational tasks..

4. The need for a detailed study outline to link students' independent work.

5. The necessary preparation of the training of students for introductory practice in the job of the tutors... A systematic scheme of further education must be followed...

Special Seminars

Elective courses in the department of pedagogy should deepen the student's pedagogic knowledge, so that he may become fundamentally competent in dealing with a pedagogic problem... It is particularly important that the students concerned be enabled to carry through independently scientific-productive work in the pedagogic field under the guidance of the seminar leader.

V. Literature

1. The Programmes of the Socialist Unity Party of Germany (Resolution of the VI SED Congress).

2. Law on the unified socialist educational system of 25 February 1965.

3. Youth - Trust and Responsibility (Communiqué of the Politburo of the CC of the SED on Problems of Youth in the DDR, 21-9-63.)

4. Youth Law of the DDR, 4 May 1964.

5. Lenin on Public Education.

6. Marx and Engels on Education and Instruction

7. Pedagogic study texts.

8. Makarenko: Works, Vol. V.

9. History of Education

10. Sources on the History of Education (Selected chapters)

11. The Socialist School: a Collection of the Most Important Decisions and Documents.

12. Pedagogy Journal.

13. The German Teachers' Newspaper.

Appendix 6

Yugoslav Course in Pedagogy - Reading Lists

(Krneta, Potkonjak and Potkonjak, Pedagogija

1. Object and Tasks of Socialist Pedagogy

1. Karl Marx, F. Engels: On Upbringing and Education. (Belgrade, 1948).

2. V. I. Lenin: On Communist Education and the School. (Sarajevo, 1960.)

3. J. B. Tito: Talks to children, youth and educational workers. (From the Collected works of Comrade Tito.)

4. Programme of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia. (Belgrade, 1958.)

5. Rodoljub Čolaković: Exposition of the General Law on Education. (B., 1958).

6. "Basis and Problems of Pedagogy in our Society". Pedagogija 3, 1963.

7. Dr. Vlado Šmit: The Methodological Unity of Pedagogic Science. (Savremena škola 3, 1963.)

8. Dr. Leo Žlebnik: General Introduction to Pedagogy. (Zagreb, 1955.)

9. Anthology of Classic Pedagogic Texts. (B., 1960.)

10. Encyclopedic Dictionary of Pedagogy. (Z., 1963.)

2. Methodology of Pedagogy

1. Encyclopedic Dictionary of Pedagogy.

2. Dr. V. Šmit: How we are Developing Pedagogic Science in our Country. (B., 1958.)

3. Dr. V. Šmit: The Methodological Unity of Pedagogic Science. (Savremena škola 3, 1963.)

4. Dr. V. Mužić: The Frontiers and Areas of Applied Experiments in Pedagogic Research. (B., 1962.)

5. Dr. V. Mužić: Tests of Knowledge. (Z., 1961.)

6. A. Krković: Measurement in Psychology and Pedagogy. (B., 1960.)

7. L. V. Zankov: Object and Methods of Didactic Research. (Sarajevo 1964.)

8. A. Radojković: The Use of Questionnaires in Pedagogic Research. (B. 1959.)

9. "The Basis and Problems of Pedagogic Science in our Country" (Pedagogija 3, 1963.)

10. Materials of the Second Pedagogic Congress of Yugoslavia. (Pedagogija, 1 & 2, 1965.)

3. The Educator in Relation to the Pupil.

1. Dr. Nikola Rot: The Psychology of Personality. (B., 19 63.)

2. S. L. Rubinstein: The Problem of Development in Psychology. (Savremena škola, 1/2, pp. 22-35.)

4. The Aim of Upbringing

1. Proposals for the System of Education and Upbringing in the FNRJ. (B., 1957.)

2. General Law on Education. (B., 1964.)

3. Law on the Basic School. (Each Socialist Republic has its own law on the basic school.)

4. The Basic School. (Federal Foundation for Educational Research).

5. Eighth Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia. (B., 1964.)

6. "Materials of the Second Pedagogic Congress of Yugoslavia." (Pedagogija 1/2, 1965.)

5. The Educational System of the SFRY

1. Proposal for the System of Education in the FNRJ. (Commission for School Reform, Belgrade, 1957.)

2. The Basic School. (Fed. Foundation for Ed. Research.)

3. General Law on Education with Commentary by R. Čolaković. (B., 1958.)

4. "Recommendations on the basis and problems of basic education". (Pedagogija 2, 1964, pp. 218-222.)

5. Dr. Ljubomir Krneta: The Unified School - Development and Problems. (B., 1963.)

6. Ivan Leko: The New School System. (Sarajevo, 1964.)

7. Ivan Leko : Social Administration in Education. (Zagreb 1958.)

9. Intellectual Education.

1. Dr. P. Šimleša: Causes of Formalism in Pupils' Learning. (Zagreb 1954.)

2. Dr. B. Stevanović : Teaching and Learning. (Kragujevac 1953.)

3. M. Jovićić: How can we teach effectively? (Belgrade 1956.)

4. Education and Upbringing in a Technological Age. (B., 1958.)

5. Dr. M. Petančić: The Connection between General and Vocational Education. (Rijeka 1958.)

6. Advisory Material on Political Education. (Savremena Škola 7-8, 1956, 3-4, 1957.)

7. The Basis and Problems of Polytechnical Education and the Pupil's Productive Work in General Educational Schools. (B., 1965.)

10. Aesthetic Education

1. Z. Gavrilović: On Art. (B., 1956.)

2. Society and Upbringing. (B., 1958.)

3. Dr. V. Rakić: Upbringing through Play and Creativity. (B., 1946.)

4. Dr. S. Ignjatović: National Literacy in Instruction and Upbringing. (B., 1963.)

5. Dr. R. Dmitrijević: Methods of Instruction in Literacy and the Mother Tongue. (B., 1963.)

6. B. Karlavaris: A New Concpetion of Artistic Education. (B., 1960.)

7. M. Kraguljac: Children's Preferences in Development of Different Painting Activities. (Belgrade.)

8. D. Plavša et al.: Musical Education (Vosl. I & II.) (B., 1963.)

9. Dr. L. Žlebnik: Certain General Enquiries into Aesthetic Education in the General Educational School. (Naša Skola 7-8, 1965.)

10. Humanism and Socialism (I). (Zagreb, 1963.)

11. Moral Education.

1. V. I. Lenin: On Communist Upbringing in the School. (Sarajevo 1960.)

2. J. B. Tito: Works (B., n. d.)

3. The School and Upbringing in the Spirit of Yugoslav Socialist Patriotism. (Materials of the III Congress of Teachers of Serbia, Belgrade, 1956).

4. Ethics: Collection of 10 brochures, published by Rad, Belgrade 1957. (Deals with the following topics: What are morality and ethics?; The Connection between morality and custom; law and religion; on duties; basic teaching on the highest good and the aim of life on the history of ethics; socialist humanism today; personal and social interests today; small-town life and its morality; moral problems of the relations between men and women.)

5. A. S. Makarenko: Methods of Upbringing Work. (B., 1957.)

6. A. S. Makarenko: Collected Pedagogic Discussions. (Sarajevo 1957.)

7. Petar Bakotić: Problems of Socialist Morality. (Split 1956.)

8. Dr. D. Franković: On Socialist Morality and the Upbringing of the New Man. (Zagreb 1950.)

9. Dr. D. Franković: Major Requirements of Socialist Ideology and Political Instruction. (Zagreb 1953.)

10. Dr. M. Palov: The School and the Formation of Understanding of the Homeland (Pre-school and Basic School Age.) Society and Upbringing, 1. Belgrade 1963.)

11. Dr. V. Pavićević: Introduction to Ethics. (B., 1962)

12. M. Skoršepa: Sex Education of Young People. (B., 1957)

13. V.A. Suhomlinskij: The Pupil's Upbringing in Collectivism. B., 1960)

14. B. Ziherl, V. Vlahović. V. Pavićević: Communism and Morality. (Banja Luka 1961.

15. The Eighth Congress of the League of Communists of Yugoslavia - Resolutions and Discussion. (Belgrade 1965.)

16. The Second Pedagogic Congress of Yugoslavia - correspondence and reports (Pedagogija 1.2. 1965.)

17. The Organisation of Instruction

1. Dr. B. Stevanović: Teaching and Learning. (Kragujevac 1953.)

2. Dr. Z. Bujas: How One Must Teach. (Zagreb 1947.)

3. M. Jovičić: How we Teach Effectively. (Belgrade 1956.)

4. S. Radonjić: Transfer of Training. (Zagreb 1961.)

19. Pupils' Homework

1. Milan Janjušević: Organisation of Instruction. (B., 1960.) (Section on homework).

2. Jesipov and Danilov: Didactics. (Sarajevo 1961.) (Section on homework).

20. Testing and Assessment

1. K. Škalko: Testing and Assessment. (Zagreb 1952).

2. V. Mužić: Instructional Tests. (Zagreb 1961.)

3. I. Tolićić: Psychological Testing of the Pupil. (Ljubljana 1957.)

4. Dr. Ivan Furlan: Getting to Know, Testing and Assessing the Pupil. (Zagreb 1964.)

5. General Instructions on the Principles of Pupil Assessment. (Službeni List 7, Belgrade 1960).

21. The Planning of Instructional Work

1. Dr. Vladimir Poljak: Planning in Instruction. (Zagreb 1963).

23. Organisation of Work in the "Little School"

1. Rade Vuković: Work in the Undivided Basic School and with Combined Departments. (Belgrade 1953.)

24. Upbringing in the Family

1. A.S. Makarenko: Book for Parents. (Sarajevo 1956.) and Collected Pedagogic Works. (Belgrade 1948).
2. Parents and Children (Belgrade 1957.)
3. G. Janjušević: The Family - Upbringer of the Child (B., 1951.)
4. V. Tomšić: The Family and Socialism (B., 1956.)
5. J. Komensky: The Maternal School (B ., 1946)
6. H. Pestalozzi: How Gertrude Teacher her Children (B., 1946)
7. The journal Parent.
8. M. Koritnik: Book for Parents (Zagreb.)

26. The Basic School as an Independent Socio-Pedagogic Institution

1. General Law on Education.
2. Law on the Basic Schools in the SR of Serbia.
3. Dr. Ljubomir Krneta: The Unified School - Developments and Problems. (Belgrade 1963.)
4. I. Leko: Social Administration of the Schools. (Zagreb.)

28. The League of Pioneers of Yugoslavia

1. Rules and Programme Principles of the League of Pioneers of Yugoslavia. (Belgrade 1964.)

2. Ž. Merdžanović: Seleniti (I&II). B.,1960.

3. Lebl Dvina Mirković: My Children and Society. (B.,1960.)

4. Paravina Ogrizović: Fifteen Years' Work of the Pioneer League In Croatia. (Zagreb 1957.)

5. Nikola Potkonjak: My Children and Technology (Belgrade 1961.)

6. Nikola Potkonjak: Work with Pioneers in the Basic School. Belgrade 1963.

Appendix 7

Rumanian course in Pedagogy

(A. Dancsuly, A. Chircev, A. Manolache, eds. : Pedagogia pentru Institutele Pedagogice. Editura Didactică şi Pedagogică, Bucharest, 1964.)

Chapter headings, main topics, and reading list.

I. Object, tasks and methods of pedagogic science.

1. The emergence of pedagogy as a science
2. The tasks of pedagogy
3. Basic ideas of pedagogy
4. The essential characteristics of pedagogy
5. Sources of pedagogic science
6. Methods of the study of pedagogy
7. The system of pedagogic sciences and the connection between pedagogy and other sciences

II. The scope and tasks of communist education.

1. The importance of knowledge of the scope of education
2. The objective character of the scope of education
3. The scope of communist education
4. Aspects of communist education

III. The education and development of children. Characteristics of children of school age.

1. Progressive pedagogic ideas on the power of education, and a critique of theories of pedology
2. The connection between education and the development of children
3. Division of individual development into age-stages
4. Anatomical and physiological characteristics of school age children
5. Psychic characteristics of school children

IV. The system of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic.

1. Concepts of the system of education
2. The system of education in bourgeois-landlord Rumania
3. The system of education in the R. P. R.

V. The process of education.

A. The nature of the educational process...
B. Principles of education...

VI. The Content of the Process of Education.

1. The concept of teaching methods; criteria for choice of methods
2. Methods of continuous and systematic exposition
3. Discussion
4. Demonstration
5. Work with textbooks and other books
6. Independent observation, laboratory and practical work
7. Exercises
8. Repetition
9. Testing and appraisal of pupils' knowledge

VIII. Forms of organisation of the instructional process

1. The lesson - the basic form of organising the instructional process
2. Other forms of organisation: excursions and visits
3. Preparation of the teacher for the lesson
4. Pupils' individual study and homework
5. The teacher's individual activity with pupils

IX. Characteristics of lesson organisation under conditions of simultaneous work with two or more classes.

1. The complex character of simultaneous work
2. Organisational problems under conditions of a simultaneous teaching
3. Development of lessons in conditions of simultaneous work with two or more classes
4. Forms of independent work in schools in which the teacher works simultaneously with two or more classes

X. The upbringing of pupils in the spirit of communist morality.

A. Nature and tasks of upbringing in the spirit of communist morality.

1. The Marxist-Leninist conception of morality
2. Communist morality
3. The role and task of moral education

B. Principles and methods of upbringing in the spirit of communist morality.

1. Principles of moral education
2. Methods of moral education

C. The content of upbringing in the spirit of communist morality.

1. Educating the pupils in the spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism
2. Education for work and the formation of communist attitudes to work
3. Education for conscious discipline

XI. Organisation and education of the pupils' collective.

1. The role of the pupils' collective in the upbringing of the younger generation
2. Characteristics of the pupils' collective
3. The organisational structure of the pupils' collective
4. Methods of forming the pupils' collective

XII. The role and activity of the Pioneer Organisation and the UTM Organisation in the School

1. The Pioneer and UTM organisations in the school
2. The content and forms of activity of the Pioneer Organisation and the UTM
3. Collaboration of the Pioneer Organisation and the UTM with the school

XIII. Aesthetic upbringing.

1. Nature and tasks of aesthetic upbringing
2. Content and methods of aesthetic upbringing in the general eight-year school
3. Development of pupils' artistic creativity

XIV. Physical education.

XV. Extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work with pupils.

1. The role and tasks of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work
2. Characteristics and pedagogic requirements of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work
3. Content and forms of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work

XVI. Joint activity of the school and family in the upbringing of children

1. The place and tasks of the family in the system of communist upbringing
2. Characteristics of the upbringing of children of early school age...
3. The work of the school with parents

XVII. The role and personality of the teacher in the school.

1. The role of the teacher in the communist upbringing of pupils
2. The personality characteristics of the teacher
3. The teacher's attitudes and relations with the pupils
4. The teacher's socio-cultural activity
   The tasks of the director's work

XVIII. School Organisation.

1. The significance and main aspects of school organisation
2. Planning school work
3. The organisation of scholastic activity
4. The guidance of activity in the school
5. The control of activity in the school

Bibliographical material for individual study:

1. Marx, K. and Engels, F.: On Upbringing and Education (Bucharest 1960.)

2. Lenin, V.I. : Tasks of the Youth League (1953.)

3. Lenin: On Public Education (EDSP, 1959.)

4. IIIrd Congress of the R.W.P. (Ed. Politică, 1960.)

5. Resolutions of the CC of the R.W.P. and the Council of Ministers of the R.P.R. on taking measures to improve the conditions of life and work of teachers in elementary and secondary education (Ed. Politică, 1959.)

6. Resolution of the CC RWP and CM RPR for the improvement of general education in the RPR (ESPLP, 1956.)

7. Resolution of the CC RWP and the CM RPR for the development and improvement of agricultural education (Scînteia, 15 May 1962.)

8. Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej: Report to the Grand National Assembly. (Ed. Politică, Bucharest, 1962.)

9. Resolution of the CC RWP and the CM RPR for the improvement of evening and external general and higher education. (Ed. Politică, Bucharest, 1959.)

10. Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej: Speech delivered to the festive assembly of youth in the Capital on the occasion of the 40th anniversary of the Creation of the Union of Communist Youth in Rumania. (Articles and speeches, 1961-62. pp. 341-346.)

11. M.J.C. The Eight-Year School in Rumania (Project), Vol. I, ii. (1961).

12. Rules of the Pioneer Organisations in the Rumanian Peoples' Republic.

13. Anthology For Pioneer Activity (Ed. Tineretului.)

14. Course of General Pedagogy (EDSP, 1961.)

15. Bădulescu, M., and Bogtină, M.: Methodical Advice on the Teaching of Spelling. (EDSP, Bucharest, 1956.)

16. Fleancu, G., and Radulian, V.: Conscious Discipline in the Mixed Secondary School. (EDSP, Bucharest, 1962.)

17. Guircăneanu, C., and Adămuț, Z.: The School Excursion (EDSP, 1962.)

18. Institute of Pedagogic Sciences: Problems of Pedagogy, pedagogic Psychology and Defectology - Pedagogic Readings. (EDSP, 1958.)

19. Inst. Ped. Scs.: Some Problems of the Lesson (EDSP, 1960).

20. Inst. Ped. Scs.: The Work of the Teacher with Class I (EDSP, 1959.)

21. Nicolaescu, F., Busuioc, E., Dănescu, S.: Physical Education in Classes I-IV. (EDSP, 1957.)

22. Pavelcu, V.: Pedagogical Psychology (Studies). (EDSP, 1962.)

23. M.I.C. Pedagogical Psychology (EDSP, 1962.)

24. Bendorfeanu, M., Chircev, A., Kovács, C., Necsa, T., Turovțev, A.: Oral Testing of Pupils' Knowledge (EDSP, 1962.)

25. Krupskaya, N.K.: Collected Pedagogical Works (Vol. I & II.) EDSP, 1959-60.

26. Makarenko, A.S.: Collected Pedagogical Works (Vol.I, 3rd Ed., EDSP, 1960.)

27. Makarenko, A.S.: Book for Parents (3rd Ed., EDSP, 1960.)

Appendix 8

Polish Course in Pedagogy

Bogdan Suchodolski (ed.) Zarys Pedagogiki (II). (Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe, Warsaw, 1966.)

Major topics and reading lists.

Introduction: Pedagogy as a science.

I. General considerations
II. Character of socialist pedagogy
  A. Critique of certain conceptions of education
  B. The guiding role of education in the formation of personality
  C. Aims of education

Part I: Tasks, content and process of education

I. Mental education
  1. The tasks of mental education
  2. The content of mental education
  3. The process of teaching

II. Moral and social education
  1. The tasks of moral and social education
  2. The content of moral and social education
  3. The process of moral and social education

III. Aesthetic education

...

IV. Physical education

...

Part II:

I. Fundamentals of teacher's instructional activity

II. Principles, methods and organisation of mental education

  A. Principles of teaching
  B. Methods of teaching
  C. Organisation of the form of teaching

III. Principles, methods and organisation of moral education

A. Principles of moral education
B. Methods of moral education
C. Organisation of the collective as a method of moral education

Part III: Specific features of the work of some educational institutions

I. The family as an educational institution

1. The problem of unifying the aims and means of education in the family and the school
2. The family as a social and educational institution
3. Main problems and principles of the education of the children in the family
4. Collaboration between the school and the family

II. Pre-school education

1. The programme of pre-school education
2. Activity and methods of work in the kindergarten

III. The organisation of the teacher's activity in the school

1. The curriculum
2. Society and the productive activity of pupils
3. Collaboration between parents and the school in the realisation of the educational programme
4. Failure of teacher's activity in the school

IV. Extra-curricular and extra-scholastic activities

1. Introductory remarks
2. Free time and the extra-curricular and extra-scholastic activities of children and young people
3. Extra-scholastic education in different fields
4. The problem of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work in Poland
5. Aims, tasks and significance of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work
6. Specific features of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work
7. Fundamental forms and kinds of extra-curricular and extra-scholastic work
8. Fundamental principles of the organisation and methods of extra-curricular work

V. The extra-scholastic education of adolescents and adults

1. Conditional factors in the development of educational-cultural work
2. Ideas of adult education...
3. Classification of the forms of educational work
4. Systematic instruction
5. Reading and self-instruction
6. Diffusion of knowledge
7. Cultural-artistic work
8. The role of the school and the teacher in "enlightenment" work

VI. The role of the teacher in the process of education and upbringing

1. The guiding role of the teacher in the upbringing of the younger generation
2. Whether so-called pedagogic talent is an inborn characteristic
3. Basic features of the good teacher in education
4. The class teacher as leader of learning group and teaching class
5. Individual and group methods of raising teachers' qualifications
6. Leading teachers together create theory of pedagogy and the future of the pedagogic sciences.

Reading Lists (Selection)

1. Intro. I

1. Encyclopedia of Education (Vol. VIII), Warsaw 1912, pp. 162-278

2. Jaxa-Bykowski, L.: Principles of Experimental Education with Particular Reference to the Polish Novel (Lwów-Warsaw, 1920.)

3. Zarzecki, L.: Introduction to Pedagogy. (L-W, 1922.)

4. Rusk, K.R.: Experimental Pedagogy (L-W, 1926.)

5. Dansz, A.: On Education. (L-W, 1930.)

6. Hassen, S.: Bases of Pedagogy (Warsaw, 1931.)

7. Mysłakowski, Z.: Pedagogy, its Methods and Place in the System of the Sciences. (Encyclopedia of Pedagogy, Vol. I, Warsaw 1933, pp. 9-30, 701-785.)

8. Rowid, H.: Bases and Principles of Pedagogy. (1st ed. Warsaw 1946, 1nd ed. Warsaw 1957.)

9. Sośnicki,K.: General Pedagogy (Ionwrocław, 1946.)

10. St. Pieter, P. Rybicki, St. Stowron, J. Spiewak: Elements of the Pedagogic Sciences (Katowice, 1946.)

11. Kairov, I. (ed.): Pedagogika (Vols I & II) Warsaw 1950

12. Ogorodnikow, J., Szimbiriow, P.: Pedagogy. (Warsaw, 1953.)

13. Suchodolski, B.: Perspectives of Pedagogy. (mysl Filozoficzna 1955, 5-6, pp. 19-20.)

14. Suchodolski, B.: Fundamentals of the problem of socialist pedagogy. (Kwartalnik Pedagogiczny 1956, 1-2.)

15. Szaniawski, I.: On the question of the subject of pedagogy, or concerning at least two meanings of the idea of education. Nowa Szkoła, 1956, 5.

16. Okoń, W.: On the subject and methods of pedagogic research. (In: Problems of Contemporary Education, Warsaw, 1960.)

2. Intro. II A

1. Ban fii, A.: Outline of education in Western areas. (Kwartalnik Pedagogiczny, 3, 1957.)

2. Goncharov, N.K.: Voprosy pedagogiki (Moscow 1960.)

3. Goncharov, A., Koroleva, F.F.: Lenin i problemy narodnogo obrazovaniya. (Moscow 1961.)

4. Osnovy kommunisticheskogo vospitaniya (APN, Moscow 1960.)

5. Petrov, N.A., Shevkin, V.S.: Lenin o narodnom obrazovanii (Moscow 1957.)

6. Suchodolski, B., Okoń, W., Szczerba, W.: Problems of Contemporary Education (Warsaw 1960.)

7. Rudniański, St.: The Idea of Social Education in Histories of Pedagogic Thought. (Warsaw 1950.)

8. Suchodolski, B.: On Pedagogy to Suit our times (Warsaw 1958.)

3. Intro. II B

1. Baley, St.: Psychology in Outline (Warsaw 1960.)

2. Baley, St.: Ways of Self-Knowledge (Kraków, 1947.)

3. Chałasiński, J.: Society and Education (W., 1958.)

4. Kairov, Goncharov, Yesipov, Zankov: Pedagogika. (Moscow, 1956.)

5. Lewitow, N.: The Question of Psychology and Character (W., 1956.)

6. Ogorodnikow, I., Szimbiriew,: Pedagogy (W., 1949.)

7. Developmental Psychology. (W., 1957.)

8. Sośnicki, K.: General Pedagogy (Toruń, 1949.)

9. Suchodolski, B., Okoń, W., Szczerba, W.: Materials for Pedagogic Studies (W., 1959.)

10. Suchodolski, B., Fundamentals of a Materialist Theory of Education. (Warsaw 1957.)

4. Intro. II C

1. Mysłakowski, Z.: The Social Function of Education (Kraków 1926.)

2. Sośnicki, K.: General Pedagogy (Toruń 1949) - IV, V, VI.

3. Kowalski, St.: The Problem of Personality in the Light of Marxist Psychology. (Wrocław 1956.)

4. Suchodolski, B., Pedagogy of ideals and pedagogy of life. Kwartalnik Pedagogiczny 1957, II, 214.)

5. Kalinin, M.I.: On Communist Education (Warsaw 1953.)

6. Rudniański, op. cit.

7. Roldyriew, N.I.: Problems of the moral education of pupils. (Nowa Szkoła, 1954, 6.)

8. Szczerba, W.: On patriotic education. (Nowa Szkoła 1957, 3.)

9. Ossowski, St.: Analysis of the Sociological Ideas of the Fatherland. (Łódź 1946.)

5. I, I, 1.

1. Danilov, M.A., Yesipov, B.P.: Didaktika (Moscow 1957.)

2. Nowacki, T.: Polytechnical Education (W., 1957.)

3. Suchodolski, B., On pedagogy to suit our times. (W., 1959).

4. Szaniawski, J.: Polytechnical Education and Manual Work (W., 1959.)

6. I, I, 2.

1. Bartecki, J., Fotyma, Cz., Lech, K.: Polytechnical Education and Problems of the Six-Year Plan in the Teaching of Pupils. (W., 1952.)

2. Budzyk, K.: The Book and Literature at the Level of the Elementary School. (W., 1948.)

3. Danilov & Yesipov, op. cit.

4. Hessen, S.: Structure and Content of the Contemporary School. (W., 1947.)

5. Kiernicki, B., Lech, K.: Polytechnical Education and the Teaching of Manual Work. (W., 1953.)

6. Polytechnical Education in the General Educational School.

7. Nowacki, T.: Polytechnical Education (W., 1957.)

8. Pęcherski, M.: School Reform in the U.S.S.R. (W., 1959.)

9. Radwan, W.: Problems of Vocational Education (W., 1948.)

10. Sikorska, H., Jaczewska, H., Bartecka, B.: Polytechnical Education and Problems of the Six-Year Plan in the Teaching of Biology. (W., 1953.)

11. Suchodolski, B.: Education for the Future. (W., 1959.)

12. Szaniawski, op. cit.

7. I, I, 3.

1. Ajdukiewicz, K.: Logical Bases of Teaching. (W. 1938.)

2. Alexander, W.M., Halverson, P.M.: Effective Teaching in Secondary Schools. (New York, 1956.)

3. Altszuler, I.: Research into the Functions of School Assessment. (W. 1960.)

4. Baley, St.: Psychology of Education in Outline (5th ed., W. 1960.)

5. Bartecki, J.: Activation of the Process of Teaching in Pupils' Groups. (W. 1958.)

6. Czerniewski, W., Słodowski, Wł.: Problems of Teaching the Polish Language in Lyceum Classes. (W., 1960.)

7. Danilov & Yesipov, op. cit.

8. David, J. Wł.: The Science of Things (Wrocław, 1960.)

9. Dewey, J.: The School and the Child. (W., 1929.)

10. Fleming, C.M.: Teaching - a Psychological Analysis. (London 1958.)

11. Garaudy, R.: Marxism and Personality. (W., 1951.)

12. Janiszowska, I., Kuligowska, K., Putkiewicz, Z.: On the Activity of Teaching in the Elementary School. (W., 1960.)

13. Komenský, J.A.: The Great Didactic (Trans. Suchodolski, W. 1956.)

14. Kotarbiński, T.: Skill and Error. (W. 1960.)

15. Kupisiewicz, Cz.: On the Effectiveness of Problem Teaching (W., 1960.)

16. Nawroczyński, B.: Principles of Teaching (Wrocław, 1957.)

17. Okoń, W.: The Teaching Process (W., 1958.)

18. Pietrasiński, Z.: The Art of Self-Instruction. (W., 1959.)

19. Racinowski, S.: Assessment of Pupils (W., 1959.)

20. Rowid, H.: The Creative School - The Theoretical Basis of the New School.

21. Roth, H.: Pädagogische Psycholgie des Lehrens und des Lernens. (Hannover 1958.)

22. Rudniański, S.: The Techniques of Mental Work. W., 1950.)

23. Smirnow, A.: The Psychology of Memory. (W. 1951.)

24. Sośnicki, op. cit.

25. Pedagogic Studies, Vol. IV. (Ed. Okoń, Wrocław 1957).

26. Szewczuk, Wł.: The Psychology of Memory (Wrocław 1957.)

27. Wołoszynowa, L.: Psychology Helps Education (W., 1960.)

28. Problems of Didactics: Problems of Contemporary Education (Ed. Okoń, W. 1960.)

8. I, II, 1 - 2

1. Garaudy, R.: Communism and Morality (W., 1948.)

2. Fritzhand, M.: On elementary school norms. (Mysl Filozoficzna 1956, 1.)

3. Kalinin, op. cit.

4. Kołakowski, L.: Ideology and education. (Przegląd Kulturalny 1956, 2.)

5. Kotarbiński, T.: Intellectual education. (Kwart. Ped. 1957, 3.)

6. Kotarbiński, T.: Matters of Conscience (W., 1956.)

7. Miller, R.: A new look at the problem of moral education. (Kwart. Ped. 1957, 1.)

8. Ossowska, M.: Bases of the Science of Morality. (W., 1958.)

9. Suchodolski, B.: Education for the Future. (W., 1959.)

10. Suchodolski, B.: On Pedagogy to Suit Our Times. (W., 1958.)

9. I, II, 3.

1. Chmieleńska, J.: On some errors in the basic ideological teaching of children. (Kwart. Ped. II, 1-3.)
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